The Literary Digest

A WEEKLY COMPENDIUM OF THE CONTEMPORANEOUS THOUGHT OF THE WORLD.

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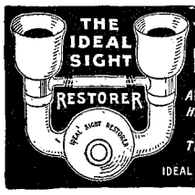

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TOPICS OF THE DAY.

THREE VIEWS OF THE PHILIPPINE PROBLEM.

THE peace treaty signed at Paris, providing for the cession of the Philippine archipelago to the United States, may be ratified by the Spanish Government without action by the Cortes (according to the press reports of its provisions); but it must be ratified by the United States Senate to become effective. Pending the submission of this treaty to the Senate, the policy to which it shall commit us continues to be the chief topic of public discussion. Three of the notable contributions to the discussion in current publications come from Prof. Harry Pratt Judson, of the University of Chicago, Prof. Theodore S. Woolsey, of Yale, and Charles Francis Adams, of Boston. Professor Judson concludes, from an exhaustive review of the recorded interpretations of the Constitution by the Supreme Court of the United States, that the control of tropical territories, whether acquiring them be a sound policy or not, presents few serious constitutional difficulties. Professor Woolsey opposes the ratification of the treaty as it stands, and gives his objections in detail. Mr. Adams proposes what he describes as the American policy as distinguished from a European or British policy. The following quotations from these writers will serve more fully to indicate their views:

Professor Judson on Annexation and the Constitution.—"The Constitution stands; but its interpretation is progressive and flexible. . . . . .

"In brief, then, these seem to be the essential facts so far as the constitutional implications of a colonial policy are concerned. The power to acquire territory is no longer seriously questioned. The purposes of annexation are not limited by the Constitution, but are at the discretion of the political branch of the Government. It is not necessary, therefore, that annexed territory should be destined for statehood. It may be held permanently as a colony, for purposes of national defense or from economic considerations. It may be held in trust for the inhabitants, with the expectation of ultimately turning it over to them should they so desire and should they prove themselves capable of orderly government. Meanwhile the government of such territory is subject to the control of Congress.

"The inhabitants of annexed territory do not by virtue of annexation necessarily all become citizens of the United States—it is not beyond question that any of them do so become. [The writer has previously pointed out that our treaties concerning acquisitions have not been uniform in regard to citizenship, and he has stated that court decisions show that "it is entirely within the scope of the treaty-making power and the legislative power to prescribe what inhabitants of annexed territory shall become citizens by virtue of allegiance."—*Editor of* THE LITERARY DIGEST.] "The Fourteenth Amendment is not of necessity so to be construed as to make birth in annexed territory result in American citizenship. The Fourteenth Amendment relates to the 'United States.' That is a term which has two meanings: in the larger sense it includes all that is within the national boundaries—'the whole American empire,' as Chief Justice Marshall calls it; in the more restricted sense it includes only the States, but excludes all federal territory. It is in the second—the restricted—sense that the term is used in the Constitution as denoting the sovereign power whose governmental agencies are therein provided—a sovereign power in which the territories have no share: 'We, the people of the United States . . . do ordain and establish this Constitution.' It is by no means proved that the term occurs anywhere in the Constitution in any other sense. Territories are not 'States' within the meaning of the Constitution, and the 'United States' in its restricted governmental sense is merely the 'States' federally united. From these considerations it follows that some constitutional inconveniences apprehended from annexation of lands over-sea and inhabited by inferior races are not likely to occur. Congress may lay a direct tax on such territories, subject only to the constitutional limitation of proportion to population.

"The limitation of uniformity placed by the Constitution on the power to lay indirect taxes is confined to 'the United States,' which may well mean the *States*. Thus there would be no such limitation so far as territories are concerned, and hence Congress would be quite free to maintain therein such system of duties and excises as circumstances may warrant, irrespective of the policy controlling the 'States.' The navigation laws are constitutionally limited also with reference only to the 'States.' Thus Congress may, if it seems expedient so to do, establish the 'open door' in over-sea territories without let or hindrance from the Constitution. Such personal rights as the Constitution guarantees within the whole jurisdiction of the national Government—both in States and in Territories—are on the whole such as would not materially impede adequate control of federal territory, and at the same time such as we would wish to extend to all people under the American flag.

"The acquisition of tropical territories may or may not be in accordance with sound policy. The control of such territories presents few serious constitutional difficulties."—*Prof. H. P. Judson, in The American Monthly Review of Reviews for January.*

Professor Woolsey's Arguments against Ratifying the Treaty.—"The presumption is against taking them [the Philippines], because to do so is contrary to our past usage and ideals and seems certain to force us into closer relation with the European system of alliances and balance of power. It makes a new kind of republic, we holding unautonomous dependencies with a climate under which our own stock can never spread.

"It must be justified, therefore, by convincing reasons, and not by an appeal to the emotions. Its advocates must show that it is constitutional. They must prove that it is likely to be profitable in excess of the burden of administration involved. They must

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show that it is practicable with our civil service to govern dependencies honestly, justly, firmly, wisely. For to say, as men are saying, that the mere gravity of this problem will bring a solution, is like a woman's logic when she marries a man to reform him.

"If not proven to be constitutional and profitable and practicable, the argument that the retention of the Philippines is the easiest way out of a difficulty is weak, because our own interests are the ones to be considered and not the welfare of the Filipinos, while the difficulty concerns the latter. It was to secure the good of its own people that this Government was organized. To risk that good or to sacrifice it for the sake of another people is to betray a trust. The destruction of the Spanish fleet at Manila was a defensive act. It saved the California coast from possible attack. The despatch of an army and capture of Manila was an offensive measure, not necessary for or directly connected with the main object of the war, viz., the liberation of Cuba. By it the Administration created a difficulty. Now it uses that very difficulty to justify its plans of annexation.

"To return now to the provisions of the treaty. There are two or three points in it which are vulnerable from the point of view indicated above. There are other features in it which should be the subject of favorable comment.

"Spain relinquishes title to Cuba.

"This leaves the sovereignty of the island in the hands of its inhabitants, but subject to the occupation of the United States for its 'pacification.' This means a protectorate of indefinite length, with the United States responsible for the internal order and external relations of the island.

"Puerto Rico is ceded to the United States.

"In modern war the loser helps to pay the winner's expenses. We exact no indemnity, but take territory instead. We take, in other words, what Spain has and do not try for what she has not.

"Political offenders and prisoners are mutually restored. This includes the Spanish forces in Manila. To deport them, and, under the protocol, the soldiers in Cuba and Puerto Rico, was a wise step and essential to the future security of these islands.

"The United States and Spain mutually relinquish all claim for indemnity, national and individual, etc. The United States will adjudicate and settle the claims of its citizens against Spain relinquished under this stipulation.

"A most startling and dangerous provision, under which every American who lost property during the insurrection or suffered in person at either Cuban or Spanish hands is invited to collect his claim from the United States. This could easily cost our Government many millions of dollars.

"The door of the Philippines is opened to Spanish trade on equal terms with our own for ten years.

"This means that the Philippine trade is to be opened to all nations alike, under the most-favored-nation clause, a wise and fortunate step, for no colonial policy can succeed which follows the opposite course. It makes our first false move in the government of Puerto Rico, confining all its trade as coasting trade to American vessels, all the more inexplicable.

"Twenty millions of dollars are given as 'compensation' for the Philippines. Two things are to be said here. One relates to the wisdom of paying anything for the islands. They and their public works are the spoils of war. Why not take them as such, or else pay their fair value? To force a sale for a pittance is not a dignified operation. Let us take the islands if we must and save our money.

"It is also to be noticed that the appropriation of this $20,000,000 will belong to the House of Representatives, which thus possesses a sort of secondary right of ratification. Whether our House must vote money passed by a duly ratified treaty is an unsettled question, and this is at least a loophole for attack.

"I pass over the many details of revived intercourse, and mention finally the article ceding the Philippines, which is the question most at issue.

"Here there seems to be a dilemma. If we keep the island trade to ourselves, we get some profit, but the islands die. If we open their trade to all alike, as we are pledged to do, we scramble for it with the rest, yet have all the burden of administration and responsibility for the conduct of seven millions of half-civilized or savage Filipinos. In compensation we shall have the offices of island government to fill and the taxes to spend. To a country like Great Britain this is an object, for it gives her young men places, while at home the avenues for their employment are few. But in our own country, where nature as yet is only partly brought into subjection, there is still reward for the best energies of our sturdiest.

"So that if we weigh what commercial advantage we are likely to get, plus the profits of administration, against the cost and the liabilities of possession, it is hard to figure a balance in our favor.

"The cost of possession is twofold, civil and military. It may fairly be assumed that taxation and duties will pay for the civil administration and ordinary public works of the more civilized parts of the islands. But to subdue or satisfy the insurgents, to reduce the savage regions and maintain order therein, to maintain the usual and necessary garrisons, to keep up a navy patrol of gunboats, to commission public ships powerful enough to protect the islands from foreign attack and preserve the connection with the United States, all this with arsenals, dry-docks, repair-shops, coaling-stations, fortifications, barracks, soldiers and sailors to be paid and fed and doctored, means a yearly expenditure only to be guessed at. And by it all we add, not to our military strength, but to our military vulnerability.

"Nothing is said here of the right of the United States under the Constitution to hold dependencies which can not become States. Nothing is said of the difficulties of the task of administering such territory. The question is argued on material grounds only. And upon these grounds I believe the Senate will be justified in refusing its assent to the ratification of the treaty."—*Prof. T. S. Woolsey, in The Independent, New York, December 29.*

Mr. Adams on "The Truly American Policy."—"While Haiti, it is true, has failed to make great progress, in one century, it has made quite as much progress as England made during any equal period immediately after Rome withdrew from it. And that degree of slowness in growth which with equanimity has been endured by us in Haiti could certainly be endured by us in islands on the coast of Asia. It can not be gainsaid that, through our insisting on the policy of non-interference ourselves and of non-interference by European nations, Haiti has been brought into a position where it is on the high road to better things in future. That has been the result of the prescriptive American policy. With Mexico the case is far stronger. We all know that in 1848, after our war of spoliation, we had to bolster up a semblance of government for Mexico with which to negotiate a treaty of peace. Mexico at that time was reduced by us to a condition of utter anarchy. Under the theory now gaining in vogue it would then have been our plain duty to make of Mexico an extra-territorial dependency, and protect it against itself. We wisely took a different course. Like other Spanish communities in America, Mexico then passed through a succession of revolutions, from which it became apparent the people were not in a fit condition for self-government. Nevertheless, sternly insisting on non-interference by outside powers, we ourselves wisely left that country to work out its own salvation in its own way.

"In 1863, when the United States was involved in the War of the Rebellion, the Europeans took advantage of the situation to invade Mexico, and to establish there a 'stable government.' They undertook to protect that people against themselves, and to erect for them a species of protectorate, such as we now propose for the Philippines. As soon as our war was over, we insisted upon the withdrawal of Europe from Mexico. What followed is matter of recent history. It is unnecessary to recall it. We did not reduce Mexico into a condition of 'tutelage' or establish over it a 'protectorate' of our own. We, on the contrary, insisted that it should stand on its own legs, and, by so doing, learn to stand firmly on them, just as a child learns to walk by being compelled to try to walk, not by being kept everlastingly in 'leading strings.' This was the American, as contradistinguished from the European policy; and Mexico to-day walks firmly.

"Instead, therefore, of finding our precedents in the experience of England or that of any other European power, I would suggest that the true course for this country now to pursue is exactly the course we have heretofore pursued under similar conditions. Let us be true to our own traditions, and follow our own precedents. Having relieved the Spanish islands from the dominion of Spain, we should declare concerning them a policy of 'hands off,' both on our own part and on the part of other powers. We should say that the independence of those islands is guaranteed by us under the treaty we have entered into, and then leave them, just as we have left Haiti and just as we left Mexico, to adopt for themselves such form of government as the people thereof are

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ripe for. In the case of Mexico and the case of Haiti we have not found it necessary to interfere ever, or at all. It is not yet apparent why we should find it necessary to interfere with islands so much more remote from us than Haiti and Mexico as are the Philippines.

"In this matter we can thus well afford to be consistent as well as logical. . . . The policy heretofore pursued by us in such cases —the policy of 'hands off' and 'walk alone'—is distinctly American; it is not European—not even British. It recognize. the principles of our Declaration of Independence. It recognizes the truth that all just governments exist by the consent of the governed. It recognizes the existence of the Monroe doctrine. In a word, it recognizes every principle and precedent, whether natural or historical, which has from the beginning lain at the foundation of our American polity. It does not attempt the hypocritical contradiction in terms of pretending to elevate a people into a self-sustaining condition through the leading-string process of 'tutelage.' It appeals to our historical experience, applying to present conditions the lessons of Haiti, Mexico, and Venezuela. In dealing with those cases, we did not find a great standing army or an enormous navy necessary; and, if not then, why now? Why such a difference between the Philippines and Haiti? Is Cuba larger or nearer to us than Mexico?"—*Charles Francis Adams, in a Letter to The Evening Post, New York, December 28.*

THE LATE JUSTIN S. MORRILL.

JUSTIN S. MORRILL.

THE death of Justin S. Morrill (December 27), the oldest member of the United States Senate both in years and in length of continuous service, occasions interesting comment. His career as a national legislator has no precedent in our political annals. No member of the present Senate was a Senator when Mr. Morrill took his seat, March 4, 1867, and only Mr. Galusha A. Grow in the present House was in the Lower House when he entered it in 1855. At the age of forty-four, Mr. Morrill was elected Representative from Vermont, his native State, and he was returned to that branch at each successive congressional election until promoted to a seat in the upper branch by the state legislature. His service in the House covered the Thirty-fourth to Thirty-ninth Congresses inclusive; service in the Senate began with the Fortieth Congress and closed during the second regular session of the Fifty-fifth, giving him the unparalleled record of almost forty-four years of continuous membership of the national legislature, twelve years in the House and nearly thirty-two years in the Senate. Senator Morrill was in his eighty-ninth year at the time of his death.

A Useful Legislator.—"As a legislator, Mr. Morrill achieved extraordinary success and connected his name with many important measures. He early devoted himself to economic and fiscal questions, and when the Republicans had at length acquired a majority in Congress, he immediately took high rank in revenue and financial legislation. The war coming on and demanding great revenues, Mr. Morrill boldly projected 'the Morrill tariff,' at once giving a great impetus to our industries and replenishing the Treasury. He was actively concerned in the treaty between wool-growers and wool-manufacturers on which his tariff bill was based, but had the courage to sanction the modification of wool duties in the tariff of 1883, altho it was likely to offend his constituents. At heart he had felt with other Senators of long service that the extreme duties embodied in the McKinley tariff were a mistake, but like others he did not give full expression to his conservative thought. As chairman of the House committee on ways and means, and of the Senate committee on finance, and of the conference committee on the tariff in 1883, he had a decisive part in shaping tariff legislation. On all other financial questions he had been a pillar of strength to the cause of wise and conservative financiering. Both in Congress and on the stump at the West, in years past, he did yeoman service on the right side in the controversies over repudiation, inflation, the silver dollar, and other questions. One of his important studies, a dozen years ago, was an original research into the history of American coinage, which he delivered in the Senate.

"Mr. Morrill had warmly at heart the cause of education, letters, and art. He was the author of the agricultural college bill, distributing lands to all the States for the purpose of founding agricultural colleges—institutions which the future may yet more justly appreciate, as land becomes scarcer and husbandry more scientific. The setting apart of the old Hall of Representatives as a national hall of statuary was Mr. Morrill's design, and to the national library he devoted years of advocacy; and he had the satisfaction of seeing the site purchased, the appropriation made, the noble building arise, and its occupation begin. The vast War, State, and Navy Building was another of his creations. He believed in the erection at Washington of buildings consonant with the grandeur of his country, and if the architecture was not great, that was not his fault. Very near to his heart also was the plan for the erection of a sister building for the United States Supreme Court. He had been pressing a measure looking to the construction of such a building for many years, and had on three different occasions prevailed upon the Senate to pass his bill for this purpose. His last appearance in the Senate was on the 19th inst., when he made a speech of half an hour's duration in advocacy of the Supreme Court Building bill. He prevailed upon the Senate to pass the bill in the face of some opposition."—*The Republican (Ind), Springfield.*

Virtues and Defects.—"Justin Smith Morrill was a good specimen of the laborious and faithful legislator who, without an original or brilliant intellect, patiently studies the details of the public business and gives it the same care, attention, and shrewdness as if it were his own. A country storekeeper and a farmer, early successful according to his moderate ambitions, he had reached middle life before entering into politics. His first term in the House of Representatives showed his capability of dealing with business questions. In passing from the Whig to the Republican Party, he followed the general impulse of his State, and thenceforward his career was assured.

"To the older generation Mr. Morrill's name was best known, as it will be known in American histories, through the Morrill tariff, which established that economic policy the results of which have been so fruitful. His long service in the Senate gave him an influence which, perhaps, was sometimes disproportionate to his talents, but was always in accordance with his character and his experience. Because of his 'monumental pomp of age' he was listened to with respect even when, as of late in regard to expansion, he did not represent the sentiment of Vermont or of the Republican Party. He had opposed annexation before, and Hawaii and the Philippines were no more unwelcome to him than Alaska had been. With the virtues he had some of the defects of New England, a conservatism that at times might be called narrowness. But his was public service always stainless and usually valuable. He lived to be the object of the regard of all without the animosity of any, surely as enviable a place as a public man can reach."—*The Sun (Rep.), New York.*

Pure, Quiet Patriotism.—"Justin S. Morrill is sometimes called the father of protection, and he was indeed a strong pro-

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tectionist to the day of his death. But he was a protectionist in practise because he loved his own country best, and not at all because he hated any other country. He was not unmindful of the scientific trend of fiscal economics in the matter of foreign trade, and not a dogmatic protectionist by any means. He favored a tariff commission to take the question out of politics, but he never fell into the free-trade fallacy that a scientific theory of trade must be put in practise because as a scientific theory it is correct, when the dogmatism of fact afforded by actual present conditions, even tho they should be temporary, confound the theory.

"To all public questions he held his mind—a mind cultured by study for many years—open, and was ever ready to take such action as would in his judgment most benefit the people, or combat unceasingly any policy he conceived to be hurtful to the public welfare. Such a life of pure, quiet patriotism, accomplishing so great results, must, if its main facts and the exemplification of its underlying principles are put and kept before the rising generations, bring many future Morrills into the public service. Greater good could not come to our country."—*The Standard-Union* (*Rep.*), *Brooklyn.*

To the Credit of a Small State.—"That such a man should have been retained in the public service for forty-four years, and for thirty-one of them, or almost a full generation, as a Senator, is a credit to the people of Vermont. They had their reward. When Justin S. Morrill and George F. Edmunds were colleagues in the Senate, Vermont had a weight in the councils of the nation out of all proportion to its population or its wealth. At the same time little Delaware enjoyed a like disproportionate importance from being represented by Thomas F. Bayard. It is only, it seems, in small and agricultural communities that the old standard of statesmanship can be maintained, that the conditions and the rewards of public life attract the men who are best capable of rendering public service. Let us hope that some of the smaller States will continue to maintain this standard, and that the Senate will continue to contain some members to remind the people what it was before the plutocrats and the bosses came to divide most of its membership between them."—*The Times* (*Ind.*), *New York.*

GROWTH OF THE TRUSTS.

"WITHIN the last six months articles of incorporation have been taken out by more than one hundred companies of abnormal capitalization, which are designed to 'take over' and concentrate the business of scattered companies in the various fields of industry." So says the New York *Herald*, and it concludes an extended review of the most important industrial combinations now existing and popularly denominated as trusts, with the following recapitulation:

	Capital.
The oil trusts	$153,000,000
Steel and iron	347,650,000
Coal combines	161,750,000
The gas trusts	432,771,000
Havemeyer's sugar trust	115,000,000
Cigarettes and tobacco	108,500,000
Control of the telephone	56,720,000
The alcoholic trusts	67,300,000
Electrical combinations	139,327,000
Miscellaneous trusts	1,349,250,000
Grand total	$2,717,768,000

The Herald's article is reproduced by *The National Corporation Reporter* (Chicago). The sixty-three "miscellaneous trusts" named in it are capitalized at figures ranging from $150,000,000 for the flour trust (*forming*) to $1,750,000 for the Rhode Island Horseshoe Company. The titles of these organizations indicate trusts in leather, tobacco (plug), crackers, starch, corn harvesters, lumber, rubber, dressed beef, sheet copper, tobacco, paper, acids and chemicals, malting, silverware, lead, knit goods, sash and doors, wall-paper, cigarettes, typewriters, window-glass, caskets, crockery, windows and doors, smelting, ribbon, gossamer rubber, axes, bolts and nuts, lithography, tissue-paper, rock salt, celluloid, saws, rope and twine, thread, furniture, stockyards, matches, ice, plate-glass, cartridges, menhaden, linotypes, refrigerators (forming), land, strawboard, milling, air-brakes, envelopes, type, soda-fountains, tacks, potteries, marbles, packing and provisions.

How much actual value of property is represented by the $2,717,768,000 of stocks and bonds of these combinations, *The Herald* considers difficult to estimate:

"When an individual manufacturer or miner sells his property to the promoters of a 'combine' he naturally puts a high valuation upon it. When the combine then organizes into a trust, and issues its securities—or insecurities—to be sold to the public, it usually gives about 'three for one' in paper, so that the originally high valuation is trebled in the capitalization. This makes 'enough to go round,' and it only remains to get the shares 'listed' on a stock exchange and 'rig the market' until they are unloaded on the public."

The federal anti-trust law (known as the Sherman law and recently held by the Supreme Court to apply to the Joint Traffic Association) does not appear to interfere with the growth of industrial combinations, and the newspapers find the situation a fruitful subject for comment.

Trusts Should be Treated as Outlaws.—"The trusts are inimical to public policy, not only because they are monopolistic and in restraint of competition, but because they oppress labor and put onerous burdens on the whole body of the people in the shape of enhanced prices. There has been latterly scarcely a trust formed the first step of which was not that of limiting production by shutting down works and by thus reducing the numbers of wage-earners. The next step has been to put up prices. The sugar trust, for instance, pays regularly a 12-per-cent. dividend, and at times an extraordinary one, upon many millions of watered capital. This extraordinary dividend is paid by the 70,000,000 consumers for the sole benefit of the partners in the trust. If the Government were to attempt to put a tax on sugar equal to the aggregate of the dividends paid by the sugar trust, the popular protest would be so great and general as to threaten revolution. Yet the people would cheerfully pay taxes for the support of the Government which under no circumstances should they be obliged to pay for the enrichment of the few members of a monopolistic trust. Again, a lesser affair, tho it concerns a large proportion of the community, is the paper trust, to which we referred yesterday. The readers of newspapers alone pay in the aggregate to the trust about $2,000,000 a year, which is represented by the trust's increased price of the paper used by the newspapers alone. The buyers of books, of all printed paper, must pay tribute to this combination of dealers that, aided by prohibitory duties, has killed fair and open competition and arbitrarily fixed the selling price of paper to suit itself.

"If Congress had any genuine regard for the interests of the people, or if it were sincere of purpose respecting their common welfare, or in regard to the proper protection of labor, it would promptly transfer to the free list every product controlled by a conscienceless and predatory trust which reduces production, cuts off working people from work and wages, and increases prices to the tens of millions of consumers. Trusts should be treated by Congress as outlaws with no rights to be respected by anybody."—*The Ledger* (*Ind. Rep.*), *Philadelphia.*

Trusts which Devour Nothing.—"The cartoonist who portrays the trusts devouring the substance of Uncle Sam while he sleeps has an eye blind to facts, but open to the prejudices of the many who never ask what truth is. Some trusts do no harm to anybody, but only good. Others do harm to scores or hundreds of small competitors by underselling them, and thus benefit millions of consumers. Others still do much harm to competitors, and yet are not so wisely managed as to serve consumers or secure durable existence for themselves, and as these are, perhaps, more numerous than any other class, it may be pertinent to notice that they do not devour Uncle Sam's substance, neither by sending it out of the country nor by keeping it themselves, but presently build up such shrewd and successful competition that consumers are in the end permanently benefited, not by their wish. The remaining class, few in number, which establishes higher prices to the injury of consumers and uses its monopoly as greedily as it can, almost invariably gets smashed up with

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heavy loss in a short time by competition, and the consumers reap the benefit of enlarge production ever after.

"In process of time most persons will presumably discover that a so-called monopoly which sustains itself solely by underselling all competitors, and serving the public more cheaply than they possibly can, is by no means a devourer of the nation's substance. It gets rich exactly as the most skilful doctor does who cures more surely than any other, and charges for his superior learning and skill. He sells what belongs to him, gets a good price, and still confers a favor upon everybody who pays. There would be just as much sense in saying that the doctor ought to work for nothing, and that he plunders the patients who gladly pay his fees, as in asserting that manufacturers who can and do undersell everybody are not entitled to profits for their superior service to the public. The trusts of this sort are apt to live and get rich, and the country all the time gets part of the profit to which they are entitled by superior skill and knowledge.

"It is nevertheless true that nearly all the trusts and combinations that are formed come to grief. . . . Combination always invites new competition, if it seems to be making anything more than ordinary profits. A large proportion of the combinations has not the superior knowledge or skill or the shrewdness in management to live against the attacks of the sharpest men in the business when fighting for their own individual interest. A still larger proportion of the combinations is formed solely for the big profits which the promoters and a few insiders can make by manipulating stocks with knowledge which other people do not possess. Nobody has any occasion to be surprised when such concerns, after a phenomenal advance of stocks which enables insiders to realize, suddenly are found to have no advantage whatever over competitors."—*The Tribune* (*Rep.*), *New York*.

Laws do Not Hit the Case.—"It is understood that the Continental Tobacco Company will absorb a part of or the whole of the Scotten tobacco interests in this city. Here is a stupendous combine of businesses lying in various parts of the country and natural competitors for the trade, but which, by virtue of the combine, will now be operated as a single interest. The perfectly open publicity with which this dicker was perfected shows that nobody now stands in fear of the federal law against trusts and combines. Indeed, nearly the entire trust business of the country has been organized within the present decade. Reference to the list of trusts displayed in the 'Commercial Year-Book,' representing more than $3,000,000,000 of capital, shows that this peculiar modern improvement began almost synchronously with the passage of the law designed to destroy them.

"The decisions in the sugar trust and in the Kansas City stockyards case reveal, as we pointed out the other day, why it is that the law of 1890 is unable to reach these institutions. It is because a mere manufacturing concern can not be shown to be in restraint of interstate trade, altho it may be the combine of institutions lying in every State of the Union. The business of manufacture is a very different thing from that of trading in the commodity after it is finished. Presumably, the Continental Tobacco Company is organized for the manufacture of tobacco, and its restraint of interstate trade can be inferred only indirectly. The courts have declared that this is not enough to bring a manufacturing concern within the scope of the law. The federal anti-trust law is practically a dead letter for the purposes for which it was enacted, and we shall probably hear very little about it in the future. The trusts will go on forming as heretofore, unless a form of legislation shall be devised that hits the case better than existing laws do."—*The News* (*Ind.*), *Detroit*.

Why Trusts Thrive.—"There are lines in which it is natural that the control of business should be in the hands of consolidated concerns or trusts. Such lines are the so-called natural monopolies. But the ease with which trusts also acquire control of industries that ought in the nature of things to be competitive, such as sugar and steel and oil, must strike the acute observer as phenomenal, and so it is. Examination will show that the ability to form and maintain a trust in the production and distribution of a commodity that belongs naturally in the domain of competitive industries is, in many cases at least, dependent upon the ability to secure favors over possible rivals at the hands of some public-service corporation, usually a railroad. Through discrimination in rates the railroads have it in their power to make or break not only individuals and corporations, but whole communities as well. By singling out a special corporation for preference over all others in the matter of rates a few railroad companies can soon succeed in making that corporation the sole survivor in its line. . . . . .

"Without discrimination in its favor by railroads the Standard Oil Company could not so easily have driven its competitors from the field. The same thing could be shown by examination to be true of some other concerns that are becoming monopolists in their lines. The first thing to do to prevent the domination of industry by trusts is to prevent discrimination by public-service corporations, especially the railroads."—*The Record* (*Ind.*), *Chicago*.

The Nursery of Trusts.—"The protective system in this country simply nurses the trusts into life and vigor. Shut out foreign competition and not only give the home capitalists a virtual monopoly of the home market but a big bonus, and the temptation exists to organize so that there shall be no competition of even home enterprises against each other.

"A case directly in point is the organization of the tinplate trust which has just applied for a charter in New Jersey. Only a few years ago, within this decade in fact, we heard that the tinplate industry in America was a weak, sickly infant, struggling to get a hold on life and needing government nourishment as no other enterprise in the United States. The fact was ascertained that there were only one or two small establishments of the kind in the country. It was not thought by many to be an industry of sufficient proportions or importance to demand aid from the nation at the direct expense of millions of consumers of the imported article. Still the protectionists piled on the tariff duties on the foreign tinplate to an almost prohibitive point, and the infant began to grow and thrive and become strong and saucy. It was more like a case of government charity than the protection of a national industry.

"But observe the result! In less than five years the weakling becomes a giant, and steps into our industrial arena as a great trust with a capital of $50,000,000! The generous supply of government milk did the work. The people nursed into strength and independence a venture that now repays the nation's kindness by preparing to turn upon and rob the public!"—*The Post* (*Dem.*), *Houston, Texas*.

Natural Growth and the Consumer.—"Some persons attempt to make political capital out of this development; but the same tendency is manifest in other countries, being not less pronounced in free-trade England than under the protective system of the United States. The tariff has nothing to do with the movement, which is the natural outgrowth of the strides made in mechanics. Machines are expensive. The mechanical equipment of a medium-sized factory exceeds in cost the means of all but a few individuals, and yet the machine becomes a necessity because it facilitates production and reduces expense.

"Competition has compelled rival concerns to secure the most perfect machines, and has stimulated invention, thus opening the way for still larger expenditures. Concentration was made profitable by the rapid improvement in the methods of distribution.

WAKE UP!—*The Herald, New York.*

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Railroads and steamships, absorbing millions in their construction, facilitate the transportation of industrial products to distant points. The building up of cities prodigious in size has supplied markets to absorb the vast output of goods. The responsibility for trusts belongs to civilization, and not to statutory provisions.

"Some persons are very solicitous about the fate of the consumer. They profess to fear that if concentration goes much further he will be completely at the mercy of capital, and will be compelled to pay the price demanded, which, in the opinion of alarmists, is certain to be an arbitrary one. Experience has shown, however, that except in a few instances, when unusual circumstances interfered with the regular course, the formation of trusts has been followed by a cheapening of necessities. Even the exceptions were generally of a temporary character, the natural law speedily asserting its effect.

"Perhaps, after a while, the consumer will imitate the trusts and organize combinations, as is done already on a restricted scale in different places. When the consuming public has been banded together in leagues to buy in large quantities, only the old relation will be practically reestablished. After all, if any evil results from trusts, it will soon cure itself. There is no cause whatever for serious apprehension."— *The Herald* (*Ind.*), *Baltimore*.

Individualism and Government.—"If there is a great movement of the masses it is against trusts and the spirit of individualism which fosters them; therefore the question to be decided is whether those who hold that the development of the cooperative theory along corporation lines must have free play are right, or those who contend that the activities now controlled by individuals through the instrumentality of corporations should be turned over to the Government to give the weak a chance."—*The Chronicle* (*Rep.*), *San Francisco*.

SUBSIDIES FOR AMERICAN SHIPPING.

DISCUSSION of the upbuilding of an American merchant marine appears as one phase of the general consideration of territorial expansion. The President's message approved national encouragement for steamship communication with our new acquisitions, and Secretary Gage, in his report for the Treasury Department, made the following recommendations:

"First—A remodeling and extension of the act of March 3, 1891, relating to the carrying of ocean mails in American steamships, so that it shall meet requirements which have arisen since the law went into operation.

"Second—The establishment of a system of graded bounties upon the mileage navigated by registered American vessels while engaged in the foreign carrying trade as compensation for the training of seamen available for the national defense, the system to have regard also to the construction of vessels which may be promptly and economically converted into cruisers, troop-ships, colliers, and supply-ships for the use of the Government. Special provision should also be made for vessels and men engaged in the deep-sea fisheries.

"Third—Extended application of the principle of the act of May 10, 1892, by virtue of which the *St. Louis* and *St. Paul* were constructed in this country upon the registry of the foreign-built steamships *New York* and *Paris*, this extension to continue for a short term of years and to be so guarded as to preserve the coasting trade to American-built vessels.

"Fourth—A moderate increase in the rates of our tonnage taxes, equalizing them with the corresponding charges at present imposed at London, Liverpool, and Hamburg.

"Fifth—The restriction of the trade between the United States, Puerto Rico, and Hawaii and the coasting trade of those islands to vessels of American registry."

Secretary Gage added:

"These propositions are drawn from the current practises of our maritime competitors. They can be put into operation promptly upon their enactment. They will not raise diplomatic difficulties, delaying action and involving us in prolonged discussion or a war of commercial retaliation. They will not raise political questions upon which parties, as now constituted, may divide. They are believed to be entirely adequate to our needs."

Before the holiday recess a bill covering the principal recommendations made by Secretary Gage was introduced in both branches of Congress. Of this measure the Chicago *Evening Post* (one of Mr. Kohlsaat's papers) says:

"A bill which will doubtless encounter bitter opposition in and out of Congress, but which is certain to pass nevertheless, is that introduced by Senator Hanna in the Upper House and by Representative Payne in the popular branch. It is intended to promote commerce and increase the foreign trade of the United States, and also to provide auxiliary cruisers, transports, and seamen for the Government's use when necessary. The principle upon which the measure is based is that without direct government aid and encouragement American shipping can not be revived to the full extent demanded by the expansion of our foreign commerce. The theoretical free-traders will combat this underlying principle, but it is significant that few practical men in any line of business question the wisdom of the subsidy policy.

"Secretary Gage very ably discussed the question in his late report and specifically recommended such legislation as is provided for in the bill named. Our commissioner of navigation went into the subject at greater length in his last report and quoted figures and admitted facts to prove the need and wisdom of the subsidy plan. He endeavored to prove that under freedom of competition the United States will not, within any reasonable time, take its place among the great maritime nations of the world.

"The bill just introduced has been carefully drawn and is approved by various interests not at all harmonious in their general purposes. This indicates that much study has been bestowed upon the provisions of the measure and the objections thereto eliminated with painstaking solicitude. A graduated plan of compensation to the owners of vessels carrying the American flag and engaged in foreign commerce is provided. The amount is to depend on the tonnage and speed of the vessel, and it is graduated all the way from the slowest sailing-vessel to steamships of 1,000 tons burden capable of making twenty-three knots an hour and upward. Another section grants a bounty of $2 per ton to vessels engaged in deep-sea fisheries, and still another provides a bounty of $1 per month to each sailor actually engaged in such fisheries. There are other important sections, but they need not be referred to here, the purpose being to direct attention to the main principles of the measure.

"Honest men may differ as to the general policy of direct bounties and subsidies. For our part we have opposed all needless interference of the national Government in industrial affairs, believing that American private enterprise, stimulated by the prospect of legitimate profit, is usually competent to meet all requirements. But as nearly all the foreign nations engaged in foreign commerce pay bounties, American shipping is hardly free under such circumstances. The German, British, and other lines have been built up to their present proportions by subsidies, and if there is no other way to restore our flag to the high seas and rehabilitate an industry once great, practical people must overcome a doctrinal objection and indorse the plan favored by our officials, merchants, and business men."

Subsidies and Taxation.—"In his annual report Mr. Gage argues with much enthusiasm for government aid to American shipbuilders. . . . We should say that increased taxation in this country in aid of any one form of business would be, at the present time, and in the actual condition of our finances, about as inexcusable as any piece of favoritism that could be devised. The arguments in favor of this policy are specious. There is no reason why public money should be spent to promote the carriage of freight from our shores that is not equally strong for the spending of public money to lessen freight charges from the interior to the seaboard. The great lines like the New York Central or the Pennsylvania Railroad are just as much entitled to a bounty on their business as would be the steamship lines that take their business when it reaches the coast. It is demonstrated, moreover, by facts perfectly well known, that our shipbuilders, so far as they are concerned, can build vessels in open competition with all the world. If after these vessels are built they meet in competition other vessels sustained by bounties, that may be a ground for countervailing taxes on their competitors coming to our ports, but even such countervailing taxes should be withdrawn when reciprocity can be secured. With the heavy burden of taxation imposed by the recent war, and which there is no reason to think can soon be lightened, Congress has no moral right to impose new taxes for the benefit of a particular industry.

"The proposition of the Secretary to apply to Hawaii and to Puerto Rico the obsolete navigation law which forbids all trade

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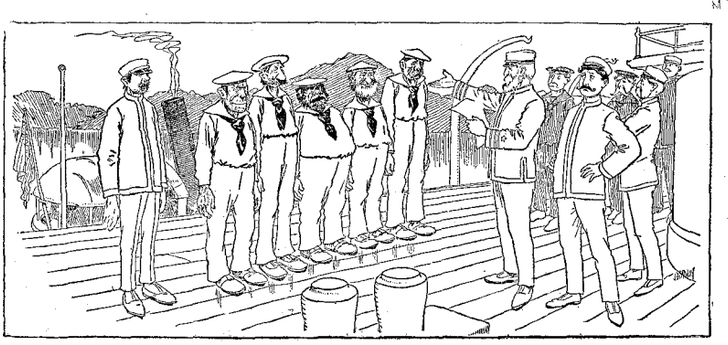
with them except in American vessels is amazing in a man of Mr. Gage's general intelligence and business experience. As this proposition is submitted without objection from the President, we are forced to conclude that the order as to Puerto Rico, already made, was the deliberate policy of the Administration and will not for the present be modified. It is a policy strangely inconsistent with the only principle on which expansion can be justified, or on which it can be made anything but costly. The only hope of securing the material and political progress of our new dependencies is in developing their trade in the greatest vigor, variety, and freedom. How can we do that if we begin by shutting out all the shipping of the world from the trade between their ports and ours?"—*The Times (Ind.), New York.*

Two Methods Compared.—"To increase the American ocean-going mercantile marine, two methods, of diametrically opposite character, are open. One is that of the abolition, or radical revision, of our navigation laws which refuse American registry to foreign-built ships; the other is that of paying subsidies to vessels sailing under the American flag, while retaining the prohibitory features of the navigation laws. The subsidy proposition is very much to the fore just now, and the easy-going spirit in regard to expenditures which is more than ever in the air, now that we are engaged in big projects of expansion and world-dominion, is unquestionably calculated to smooth the way for subsidy schemes in general, and for the shipping subsidy scheme in particular.

"The existing laws on the subject of navigation are entirely in the interest of the shipbuilders, and have been among the most powerful factors in bringing about the decline of the American shipping trade on the high seas. European shipowners are at liberty to buy their ships where they please, and get them at the lowest price at which they can be furnished anywhere in the world; Americans are compelled to pay home shipbuilders their price or go without ships. What the advocates of subsidies ask is that this disadvantage be remedied not by giving Americans the same freedom in the purchase of ships as is enjoyed by the foreigners who do our foreign carrying for us, but by paying American shipbuilders great sums out of the public treasury to encourage them to carry on their business. They are still to be handicapped by regulations made for the advantage of the shipbuilders, but it is proposed to make this up to them, and more, by payments made to them directly out of the pockets of the people at large.

"Direct subsidies have never been looked upon with a favorable eye by the American people; they have always preferred to tax themselves indirectly for the support of protected industries. A healthy opposition is being made to the present subsidy proposition, and it will doubtless be fought with vigor in Congress. There is one line of attack, however, which should be avoided by its opponents. We observe that the scheme of subsidies is being attacked, in some quarters, on the ground of its inability to achieve what it aims at. The failure of previous attempts in the same direction is pointed out. We consider this an unfortunate method of opposition. The subsidy people can reply, and reply with perfect logic, that if former subsidy schemes have failed, it was because the subsidies were inadequate. It is evident that, if you grant a sufficiently high bounty for the carrying on of any business, that business will become profitable, and will therefore be carried on. The positive predictions of the impossibility of carrying on the tinplate manufacture in this country have come to naught, as they were bound to if high enough protection was instituted. If we are willing to pay enough for the fancy, we can induce people to go into the shipping business or into any other business. Let the fight be made on the principle of subsidies, on the extravagance of them, and on the certainty of gross abuses in their bestowal. Nothing will be gained by maintaining the proposition that subsidies are incapable of subsidizing. Lay them on thick enough, and you will get what you want—supposing you want it at the price."—*The News (Ind.), Baltimore.*



THE EFFECT OF HOBSONISM.

COMMANDER (the next time volunteers are called for): "I choose you because you are unkissable." —*The Inter Ocean, Chicago.*

Versions of the Wilmington Race Troubles.—The account of the race troubles connected with the overturn of the city government of Wilmington, N. C., as given in these columns, November 26, was based in the main, upon special despatches to the Atlanta *Constitution* and the New York *Herald*. A. L. Manly, editor of *The Record*, which was wrecked at Wilmington, challenged the correctness of the sequence of events in our account. He wrote to THE LITERARY DIGEST that the wrecking of his plant and further rioting and murder took place after, not before, the new government had taken office. Mr. Manly's statements were published in this department, December 17. Since that date letters from the offices of Murchison & Co., bankers, and the Wilmington Street Railway Company have reached this office, differing only slightly in detail, and corroborating, in essential particulars, the account first published. A. B. Skelding, general manager of the Wilmington Street Railway Company, writes:

"Election day was Tuesday, November 8. On November 9, a mass-meeting of over 1,200 of the most prominent citizens and business men met at the court-house, adopted a set of resolutions, and appointed a committee of twenty-five to see that they were carried out. *The Record* office was destroyed about 9 A.M., November 10, and about 11 A.M. the rioting began. About noon the same day the city government, realizing that they were utterly unable to cope with the situation, notified the committee of twenty-five that they desired to resign, and at 4 P.M. met at the City Hall for that purpose. As each member retired the remainder of the board elected as his successor a man appointed by the committee. On Friday, November 11, while the new government was still in a more or less disorganized state owing to the lack of an efficient and trained police force, certain corrupt and objectionable characters were notified to leave town by irresponsible persons, and for their own protection were escorted to the station by the militia."

TOPICS IN BRIEF.

THE grip is again epidemic. Uncle Sam has a well-developed case.—*The World-Herald, Omaha.*

NOT YET.—"At last we have a united country."

"United! With Massachusetts and the Philippines at swords' points?"—*The North American, Philadelphia.*

AGUINALDO seems uncertain whether he would like to be the George Washington of the Philippines or the Jesse James.—*The Star, Washington.*

PRESIDENT MCKINLEY has been promoted for good conduct. He is now the resident partner of prosperity and the advance agent of destiny.—*The Capital, Topeka, Kans.*

Way down souf, in de lan' ob cotton
Seceshunul strife am quite forgotten;
Talk away, talk away, Dixie lan'!
Dere ain't no norf an' souf no mo',
Ohio is expandin' sho',
Talk away, talk away, Dixie lan'!

CHORUS.

Den I'm huntin' votes in Dixie,
Hooray! Hooray!
In Dixie lan' I take my stan'
An' whoop an' shout for Dixie!
Hooray! Hooray!
I wave my mouf in Dixie.

—*The Evening News, Detroit.*

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LETTERS AND ART.

THE MOTIVE OF MODERN ART.

THE November number of the *Russki Vestnik* contains a very interesting article on modern art and the problems of contemporary thought. To determine the exact trend of modern thought, the writer thinks, we must turn to art. The man of art possesses the keenest faculty of perception, and is also the fittest and truest exponent of the new ideas and reigning spirit of his age. And in all phases of modern art, in painting as well as in drama, prevails one idea, namely, the struggle of man for full, unlimited, and absolute freedom. The writer says:

"The frequenter of modern art exhibitions is struck by one prevailing feature—the fantastic. Fantastic colors, fantastic blending of shades, fantastic portraying of the spiritual, and fantastic surroundings. What the contemporary painter prefers above everything else is to transfer his spectator to the realms of fairy tales and myths. But the tale is not purely a fairy tale, or authoritative classical mythology. No; it is a fairy tale capriciously intermixed with reality, mythological beliefs intertwined with facts of Christian history, as so clearly shown by the well-known painting by Klinger (of München, Germany), 'Christ on the Olympus.' Christ stands before Jupiter surrounded by nude bacchantes and goddesses; in the foreground are women clad in modern attire, bearing crosses. Looking at a picture of this kind, you can not get rid of the painful thought that the painter had only one aim, namely, to demonstrate to every one that he is absolutely free, and does not acknowledge any rules or restrictions either for himself or his imagination.

"The language of painting and plastic art is after all not as outspoken as that of literature, especially in its highest form—the drama. That which is brought out in lines common and vague in paintings and statues is, on the contrary, in the drama full of particulars well defined.

"If we should apply to the greatest writer of modern drama, Ibsen, we will discover at the foundation of all his dramas a few simple and sufficiently monotonous fundamental motives; or, to be more explicit, one and the same reigning motive, only handled in different ways, and put into different conditions and forms of life."

First of all, the critic goes on to say, Ibsen's heroes struggle for the freedom of the individual from social tyranny ("Enemy of Society"). Farther on the hero of Ibsen appears as the champion of true love; and, since untruth, mutual deceit, and falsehood have penetrated all modern social relations, the family included, he engages in a struggle against the family ("Nora," "Hedda Gabler"). In this struggle for personal freedom, Ibsen goes so far that he refuses even to recognize natural and necessary restrictions, such as, for instance, old age and heredity. His power over all such infirmities man can manifest by putting an end to his existence ("Wild Duck," "Ghosts").

This same fundamental motive, only a little changed in form, is also to be found in the other great dramatist of our day, Gerhardt Hauptmann. No matter from what standpoint we view his "Sunken Bell," there can be no doubt as to the fundamental motive, the struggle for the freedom of imagination. Imagination must be free *à tout prix*. And the same motive we see in Sudermann, another great contemporary dramatist.

This craving for boundless freedom, which is treated by modern art as the reigning spirit of the age, is already beginning to occupy the social thought, and is seeking for a philosophical justification. Nietszche is the most remarkable philosopher-apologist of this new movement. We quote again:

"Lately much was spoken about the influence of Nietszche on contemporary literature. Much of what was said is undoubtedly true. On the latest, the truly contemporary man of art (as for instance, Gerhardt Hauptmann), his influence is undeniable. But on the earlier (for instance, Ibsen), this is plainly a chronological impossibility. But if there is nevertheless to be found a similarity between the philosophy of Nietszche and the ideas of Ibsen and other men of art who stood outside of his influence, it only proves that here we have to deal with elements of intellect traceable to one and the same source, and which can for that reason not be considered solely the product of thought of one or another thinker or dramatist. Viewed from this standpoint the similarity of the ideas of Nietszche to those of the modern dramatists is of exceptional interest. It is clear that Nietszche is only trying to give expression to a principle which had independently of him sprung into life and set it in fermentation."

The critic finds in this modern tendency a reaction from the mechanical philosophy of the evolutionists. Turned into a machine, man had to obey the laws and influences unavoidable and fatal, and was looked upon as a necessary product of his social environments. The state of society itself was explained as a product of cosmic laws and the influences of climate, flora, fauna, etc. The demand for unlimited freedom of thought, of creation, and practical activity, rooted in the philosophy of Nietszche and in the works of modern dramatists, is only the effect of protest, a protest which is both natural and necessary.—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

LITERATURE OF THE FILIPINOS.

OF the native Filipinos whose writings in the Spanish language have won them prominence, the greatest was Dr. Jose Rizal, who, on the publication of his famous monograph, was condemned and shot on a charge of blasphemy and sedition. But as Margherita Arlina Hamm, author of "Manila and the Filipines," tells us that "the entire output of printed matter in the archipelago during a twelvemonth would not equal a single day's issue of a leading New York daily," it will be easily inferred that the real significance of Filipino literature is still to be sought in folklore and legendary. This, we are told by the same writer, exists in the form of traditions, ancient songs and ballads, and some curious religious and historical dramas. One series of legends, some in prose and some in verse, is devoted to the old wars between the Tagals and the Igorrotes; another to particular heroes of each race. Yet another class, connected with the wanderings of the Malays before they had reached the northern part of the archipelago, "are songs of the sea, and full of the exaggeration and rude poetry which mark the savage mind." Altho in these legends all the animals have a language intelligible among themselves, only the dove can understand human speech. The legend of the *bankiva* is very impressive, and bears a curious kinship, as the writer points out, to the story of the Pied Piper of Hamelin. She tells it as follows (*The Independent*, December 15):

"The jungle-fowl or *bankiva* possess the power of charming children by a special cry or call. But they are only allowed to use this power either one day of the year or one week of the year, when the spirits give them the privilege so that they can avenge themselves against their chief enemy—man.

"The handsomest *bankiva* is selected by the flock to lead a procession of jungle-fowl who fly from the forest to the outskirts of the village and there give the call. Grown people do not hear it, but little children hear it and are intensely delighted. Babies turn in their mothers' arms and coo in response, and little toddlers hurry as fast as their feet can carry them to see the strange bird that produces the beautiful music. When they reach the little ring in which the *bankivas* are singing, spreading their feathers and dancing, they pause for a moment, and then, as the flock begins to move toward the forest, they follow unconsciously. Into the forest and into the marsh, into the lairs of serpents and into the haunts of alligators the helpless innocents wander, drawn by the magic of the *bankivas'* call. They seldom return, and when they do, they come back as old men and women to whom the village of the morning is another and very different place."

The native dramatic literature, we are told, is extremely crude and at the same time very artificial. The writer goes on to say:

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"It would seem as if the Malays had been influenced by the Chinese stage across the sea. They employ, like the Chinese, very rich costumes, use an open platform without scenery or stage properties, and employ sing-song delivery, which to the Caucasian ear is very monotonous and unpleasant. Their plays are of three classes. One is of a religious type, something like the miracle-plays in old English civilization. A second class, which is more popular, is known as the *Moro-moro*, named after the Moros or Mussulmans of Mindanao and the Sulu archipelago. These are heroic, or rather melodramatic, productions, in which there is a brave Christian prince and an equally brave but wicked Moslem potentate, a heroine who is captured or robbed or otherwise injured, soldiers of the Cross and warriors of the Crescent, and any amount of fighting, bloodshed, and massacre.

"The heroine is always rescued, the Christian prince always wins, and the luckless follower of Mohammed is consigned to defeat, disgrace, and death. These *Moro-moros* last from two to six days, and produce so much excitement that when a good company comes to a village nearly all labor is suspended until its departure."

A peculiarity of the Tagal love-songs is that they contain no allusion to kissing. This is explained by the fact that osculation is held in less favor among the Malays than in some other races. Their songs are set, not only to music, but to dances.

NEW LIGHT ON SHELLEY'S DEATH.

SHELLEY'S death has always been looked upon as one of the saddest incidents in the history of literature. It was practically a case of suicide, and it came before the poet reached the maturity of his splendid gifts. The claim that new light has been thrown upon this event is, of course, one certain to arouse very general interest.

Dr. Guido Biogi, of Viareggio, Italy, has just published a book on the last days of Shelley, containing documents that give new details of the poet's death. These documents were found a short while ago in the governmental archives of Florence, Lucca, and Leghorn. Dr. Biogi adds the testimony of a number of persons still living who were witnesses of the cremation of Shelley's remains or who heard talk about it at the time. This testimony, with the aid of accounts already published from Mary Shelley, Trelawny, Leigh Hunt, and others, covers most completely this period of Shelley's life and his death.

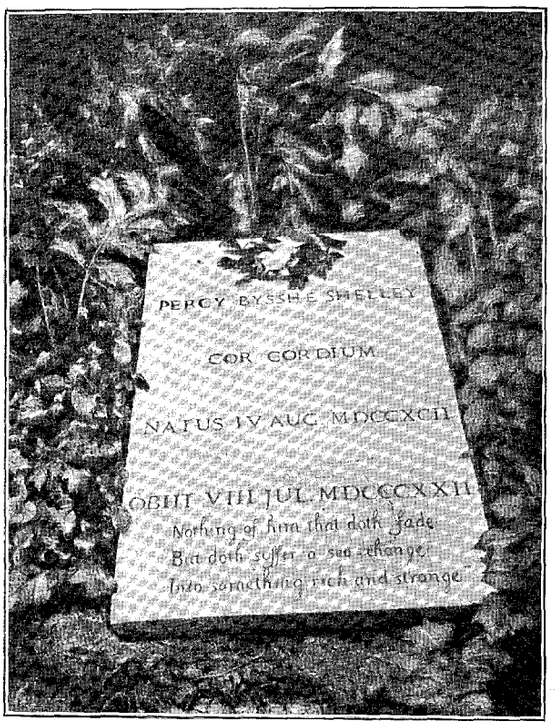
Shelley wanted to die in the water, as Harriet, his first wife—whom he, in his youth, had deserted "with truly Goethian indifference"—had died. The idea so fascinated him that he actually sought every opportunity to be shipwrecked.

One day at San Terengo, he and Jane Williams took a sail in a frail craft. The boat went floating out to sea. He seemed wrapped in a dream. Jane implored him to return. Suddenly Shelley, raising his head with a radiant aspect, said: "Now let us go together to solve the great mystery." "No, thank you," she replied, "I prefer to go back to supper with my children."

On another occasion Shelley was sailing from Leghorn to Pisa with Captain Williams and a sailor named Reveley. The boat was upset. Reveley, who could swim, took Captain Williams ashore, leaving Shelley on the wreck. He was admonished not to move till Reveley returned. He replied: "All right, I never was better off in my life; do what you like with me."

On January 15, 1822, the Shelleys and Edward Williams and his wife Jane were together at Pisa. The attachment between the poet and the Williamses was nothing short of ideal. Jane Williams, an accomplished musician, possessed of tact and charm of person, was a new light in Shelley's life. That night Edward Trelawny, who had conceived a great affection for Shelley, came as a guest. On no one did Shelley make a more ineffaceable impression. Trelawny was struck with the poet's eyes, of a wonderful brightness. Shelley was often spoken of as "a Titan's spirit in a virgin's form"; but Trelawny, who afterward saw Shelley naked, says that the poet reminded him of a young Indian, so muscular and wiry was he. He was brave, frank, simple, direct in speech, courteous, and considerate of others, being entirely free from selfishness or vanity.

On this memorable evening Shelley and Williams had decided to spend the summer near Spezia, and a boat for the purpose was necessary. Trelawny was induced to write to Captain Roberts, a retired English naval officer, who had brought with him to Genoa the model of an American schooner, to build the boat Shelley wanted. At this time Lord Byron was also at Pisa, and


PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY
COR CORDIUM
NATUS IV AUG MDCCXCII
OBIIT VIII JUL MDCCCXXII
Nothing of him that doth fade
But doth suffer a sea-change
Into something rich and strange

SHELLEY'S TOMBSTONE AT ROME.

Permission of New Amsterdam Book Co.

Shelley's plan had been to have Byron join them in the summer-villa project. But on account of Byron's cruel treatment of Claire Clairemont (having seduced and abandoned the poor girl), the friendship between the two poets had come to an end. The Shelleys and the Williamses decided upon the summer villa at Casa Mogni on the gulf of Spezia, and went there on May 1, 1822.

On May 2, the "unlucky boat" arrived at Casa Mogni from Genoa. It measured twenty-one by eight feet, and was a handsome schooner-rigged yacht. The whole crew consisted of Charles Vivian, an English cabin boy. Captain Williams, who considered himself an expert, would not have any others.

Trelawny, an enthusiastic friend of Byron, proposed that the boat should be called *Don Juan*, and Shelley did not oppose him. But Mary Shelley wanted the boat called *Ariel*. Byron nearly went into a rage at the idea that his hero should be slighted. So the boat arrived under the name of *Don Juan*, but was immediately changed to the *Ariel*.

Shelley often went to sea in this craft without regard to weather. The old sailors attempted to dissuade him, but without effect. He did not compose much; Lord Byron's society had done him no good. "I have lived too long with Byron; the sun has extinguished the firefly." He did, however, write "The Triumph of Life" while rocking in his little boat. It was a supreme efflorescence of his genius, promising a new manner in his poetry, more serene, more tranquil, more human. In the last line of that poem (alas! left unfinished), he asks: "Then what is life? I cried."

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Was this a presentiment of his coming end? In a letter to Trelawny on June 18, he asked the latter to send some prussic acid, adding: "I need not say that I have no present idea of killing myself, but I confess it would be a comfort to hold in my hand the golden key of the chamber of eternal rest."

On July 1 Shelley and Williams, on board the *Ariel*, sailed to Leghorn to meet Leigh Hunt, who had come to Italy, with funds supplied by Shelley himself, to help Byron establish a literary journal. No human being was ever more attached to another than Shelley was to Hunt. When they met, Shelley flung himself upon Hunt's neck and exclaimed: "I am inexpressibly delighted—you can not think how inexpressibly happy it makes me." From Leghorn the three went to Pisa to see Byron. Shelley, in the mean time, was writing mournful letters to Jane and Mary. Williams became impatient to return, and they bade their friends farewell, Leigh Hunt giving Shelley a copy of Keats's "Hyperion" to read on board. "Keep it," he said, "until you can give it back to me with your own hand." Hunt conjured his friend not to venture to sea if the weather was threatening. On Monday, the 8th, Shelley and Captain Williams set sail from the harbor of Pisa. That afternoon the water fairly smoked, and before the boat had reached the open sea the hurricane came. It lasted about twenty minutes. The *Ariel* was seen to enter the tempest and to disappear.

Without hearing a word as to the fate of the *Ariel*, three days after, Trelawny, hoping to hear from Casa Mogni, told Hunt of his fears. He spoke also to Byron, whose lip quivered and voice faltered as he questioned him. The *Bolivar* was sent to cruise along the coast.

The two poor widows at Casa Mogni were in deepest anxiety, still they were not aware of the worst. They decided to go to Leghorn to learn of the possible whereabouts of their husbands. In the mean time a letter from Hunt to Shelley arrived, saying: "Pray tell us how you fared on Monday? We are anxious." The letter fell from Jane's hands. "Then it is all over," she said. "No, my dear Jane, it is not all over," said Mary Shelley; but the poor women were swift to learn their fate. Soon they reached Pisa. They staggered upstairs to the apartment where Byron was staying, and knocked. Guiccioli's maid answered, and Mary Shelley burst out: "Where is he? Do you know anything of Shelley?" She knew nothing. He had sailed on Monday and a great storm had overtaken him. They hastily proceeded to Leghorn. They found Captain Roberts at the Globe. His face assured them of the worst. But they still hoped. Now they journeyed to Viareggio, and here the full force of the calamity began to break upon them. A little boat and a water-cask had been found five miles off. They did their best to argue away and doubt this evidence. Saturday, July 13, they returned home, two desolate women; on the 19th the bodies of Shelley and Williams were found washed ashore, and Trelawny went to Casa to break the news. He entered the house unannounced. "I spoke not, nor did they question me. Mrs. Shelley's large gray eyes were fixed upon my face. I turned away. Incapable of enduring this terrible silence, she exclaimed: 'Then there is no longer any hope?' I did not answer, but left the room and sent to them the maid with the children."

The bodies of Shelley and Captain Williams were buried in the sand on the shores of the Gulf of Spezia. After much correspondence between the government of Leghorn and the British Minister at that place, and between Mr. Dawkins and the local authorities at Pisa and Viareggio, the bodies were taken up and cremated. The papers that Dr. Biogi has discovered relate almost entirely to the identification of the bodies and their removal or cremation on the spot. The sanitary regulations at this time seem to have been very rigorous in this part of Italy, as it was with considerable difficulty that the Government could be got to consent to cremation on the spot, distant from any human habitation.

The necessary permission having been given to Mr. Dawkins, the English minister, Trelawny set about preparing for the kindly office which had been confided to him. He procured a sheet-iron furnace of the dimensions of a human body, and abundant provision for fuel. He invited Hunt and Byron to be present at the cremation. They accepted. The event occurred on August 15. The party was accompanied by a squad of soldiers in uniform, armed with mattocks and spades, and the health officer with his men. The corpses were to be handled with tongues and hooks so as to prevent personal contact, so great was the fear of contagion in those days. Williams's body, which was buried on the boundary line between Tuscany and Lucca, was cremated first. When the grave was opened, there appeared only a mass of bones and flesh. The limbs separated from the trunk on being touched.

Here Byron stepped forward with a gesture which recalled that of Hamlet when the gravedigger's spade turns up the shining skull of Yorick:

"Is that a human body!" exclaimed Byron, "why it is more like the carcass of a sheep, or any other animal, than a man; this is a satire on our pride and folly."

Trelawny pointed to the letters E. E. W. taken from the remains, and Byron muttered, "the entrails of a worm hold together longer than the potter's clay, of which man is made. Hold, let me see the jaw," he added as they were removing the skull. "I can recognize any one by the teeth, with whom I have talked. I always watch the lips and mouth. They tell what tongue and eyes try to conceal."

But Trelawny identified the remains more certainly by the boots. The remains were removed piecemeal and put into the furnace.

Byron said: "Don't repeat this with me. Let my carcass rot, where it falls." The funeral pyre was lighted and burned with energy.

Here Byron made an audacious proposal. "Let us try the strength of these waters that drowned our friends. How far out do you think they were when the boat sank?"

"If you don't wish to be put into the furnace, you had better not try. You are not in a condition," said Trelawny.

But the advice was useless, for Byron stripped and swam out a mile and then returned.

The fire having burned down, the furnace, in order to cool it, was dipped into the sea. The ashes were then put into a box and taken away in Byron's carriage.

The next day Trelawny and his party went to Viareggio and took up the remains of Shelley and performed a like service. Dr. Biogi says that, from the documents he has examined, it is not clear just where Shelley's body was buried, but, according to Trelawny, the place was lonely and grand, the ideal resting-place for Shelley. After the soldiers had dug in the sand for some time, in search for the grave, one of them struck the skull and the body was uncovered. Byron asked Trelawny to preserve the skull for him; but, remembering that he had formerly used a skull for a drinking-cup, Trelawny was determined that Shelley's should not be so profaned. When the pyre was lighted, they poured wine, oil, and salt on the corpse. The remains, according to Trelawny's account, were entirely consumed with the exception of the heart, upon which, to the surprise of all, the red-hot heat had scarcely any effect. Trelawny says he snatched the heart out, burning his hand as he did so.

This poetic episode, however, Dr. Biogi thinks is an embellishment not warranted by the facts. The *proces verbal* given by the officials at the cremation to their superiors does not mention that the heart was saved, but does state that the remains were reduced to ashes, and states further that, in fact, all the flesh upon the body had been destroyed by quicklime before being exhumed for cremation.

The ashes were given to Mrs. Shelley, Trelawny says, and she

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kept them in a small sack between the leaves of "Adonais," Keats's elegy, which, she declared, more truly belonged to Shelley. This statement Dr. Biogi does not seem to doubt, for he thinks that tho the sanitary regulations were too strict to allow such a thing ordinarily, yet the Italian officials winked at this case.

Dr. Biogi in 1890, while in Viareggio, found living there some old sailors and one old woman who distinctly remembered the cremation of the two Englishmen. One of these old men was able to identify the exact spot where Shelley was buried and afterward cremated. It was on a wild, lonely coast near a forest of pines.

RECENT COMMENTS ON RUDYARD KIPLING'S WORK.

IT is said that one of the English literary weeklies was lately bribed by a long-suffering reader to appear for two consecutive weeks without any mention of Omar Khayyám or Rudyard Kipling. But, in spite of every precaution, a quotation from the latter crept in.

There is at least some excuse for this story. In English, French, and American periodicals of the last two months, we find "The Works of Mr. Kipling," "Mr. Kipling as an Artist," "Mr. Kipling as a Poet of Energy," "Kipling as a Moralist," "The Religion of Rudyard Kipling," and much else. According to the New York *Critic*, Kipling "has become that anomalous being, a living classic." London has even brought to birth a little publication whose sole object in existence is to chronicle the latest Kiplingiana. But probably no more judicial and authoritative estimate of Mr. Kipling's work has yet appeared than that printed anonymously in the October *Blackwood's*. After commenting on the fact that "the most remarkable writer of his generation" has been before the English public little more than ten years, and has already achieved a "collected edition," the article continues:

"It has been his portion to gain the ear of the great non-literary reading public, and at the same time to win the enthusiastic applause of that limited body of men whose pleasure in a work of art is derived from a perception of the means as well as of the end. Such good fortune falls to few. There are writers whose work is keenly appreciated by their literary brethren, but who make little or no impression upon 'the great heart of the people.' Of such, Mr. Stevenson was a typical representative. There are others, again, who sell their tens of thousands, yet whose glaring faults of taste effectually repel the sympathies of the educated minority, the *cachet* of whose approbation, while they profess to despise, they secretly long for. But the critic to whose palate the works of Miss Corelli or Mr. Caine are as ungrateful as a meal of dust and ashes, is well aware that from the point of view of literature neither the lady nor the gentleman exists. Their performances will have as much significance for the competent critic of the future as the 'Dagonet Ballads' or Captain Coe's finals. So, too, the reviewer to whose hardened sensibilities the pathos and the humor of Kailyard alike appeal in vain has more than a suspicion that Messrs. Crockett and Maclaren will not enter into the reckoning of our sons' sons. But he knows that Mr. Barrie is certain to count. And even so it is with Mr. Kipling. You may lay your finger on faults real or imaginary; you may find his verse flashy and his prose irritating. But you can not (being in full possession of your senses) pass him by; you can not maintain that, in estimating the literary forces and tendencies of our age, it is possible to leave him out of account. As well ignore Dickens in a review of Victorian literature; as well ignore Keene in a review of Victorian art.

"Perhaps the most striking feature of Mr. Kipling's work is the wide range over which it expatiates. Subjects the most diverse are handled with the same air of ease and intimacy; and no other writer is so well entitled to repeat with proper pride the most familiar and the most hackneyed of Terentian sentiments, 'For to admire and for to see. For to behold this world so wide'—that is his *métier;* and we may proceed with the quotation and add that 'he can't drop it if he tried.' How or where Mr. Kipling acquired his 'extensive and peculiar' knowledge of the physical world, of the human heart, and of animated nature, is no business of ours. As he himself sings:

> 'When 'Omer smote 'is bloomin' lyre
> 'Ed 'eard men sing by land an' sea;
> An' what 'e thought 'e might require
> 'E went an' took—the same as me!"

No doubt in 'The Three Musketeers' he allows the world a glimpse of one of his methods of collecting raw material. But there are matters innumerable in his writings for which there is no accounting, unless we are prepared to concede to him a full measure of that faculty of divination which is heaven's best gift to a chosen few. . . . . .

"It is merely his due to attribute to him the chief share among men of letters in that revival of the imperial sentiment, both in these islands and in our colonies, which has been so striking a phenomenon of recent years. To have reawakened a great people to a sense of its duties and responsibilities, to have fanned the drooping flame of an enlightened but fervent patriotism—these are achievements of which few indeed can boast. It is, we trust, unnecessary to disclaim all intention of disparaging the good work performed by great men in years when the country seemed plunged in a fatal lethargy, and men appeared to have grown indifferent or insensible to England's mission and destiny. Lord Tennyson, for example, has no stronger claim upon the reverence and affection of all generations of his countrymen than the fact that from time to time he set the trumpet to his lips and blew a strain whose echoes will never cease to encourage and to inspire. But old and neglected truths sometimes require to be presented in a new garb; and abstract principles constantly need to be driven home by concrete illustrations. It has been Mr. Kipling's enviable task to bring down patriotism from the closet to the street, and to diffuse its beneficent influence among millions who had hitherto remained untouched."

The writer claims "that no more formidable attack has been delivered upon Liberalism in the present generation than Mr. Kipling's work taken as a whole"; and it is in India, his peculiar literary domain, that Mr. Kipling reduces Liberal principles *ad absurdum*. The secret of Kipling's extraordinary vividness the *Blackwood* critic discovers in the fact that he never pauses to make preliminary explanations.

Mr. Kipling's short stories may be very roughly classified as tales of "Anglo-Indian Society," of "Native Life," and of "The British Army." With those of the first group the writer has much fault to find. Mrs. Hauksbee, he says, "won't do." Here he finds Mr. Kipling's knowledge degenerated into knowingness. He speaks of "The Story of the Gadsby's" as "at once the glory and the shame of Mr. Kipling's prose muse"; and again as "the most amazing monument of precocity in all literature." For the bulk of the short stories, however, he has nothing but praise. The greatest vogue in England has belonged to the military stories, by means of which "he has taught the least imaginative of nations what manful work its soldiers are doing for it." Kipling's inspiration in this line was curiously anticipated by Tom Robertson, author of "Ours." The *Blackwood's* critic considers "The Man Who Would Be King" Mr. Kipling's *chef d'œuvre* in prose; and of "The Jungle Books" he says, "none of his works have the same graciousness and charm, none are so wise, so considerate, so kindly." But the author of these masterpieces has not proved himself capable of a really great novel. The writer proceeds as follows:

"The peculiar attraction of Mr. Kipling's prose work lies much less in any solicitude for style than in his unique fertility of imagination. . . . In some of his earlier pieces his manner is almost vicious. It is like 'the picture-writing of a half-civilized people,' to borrow an apt metaphor of his own—crude, jerky, flippant. The straining after smartness and sensation is too evident, and the flash epigram is too frequent and favorite an ornament. That these faults have been to a great extent corrected by the maturer taste and sounder discretion of advancing years is perfectly true. But they are not wholly eradicated, and Mr. Kip-

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ling has still to vindicate his title to be considered as a model of English style. . . . But the great bulk of Mr. Kipling's most vigorous and successful prose-work is not in ordinary English, but in dialect. It is in the lingo of the Cockney, the Irishman, or the Yorkshireman; or it is in a tongue specially invented for the use of birds and beasts; or it is in a language designed to reproduce the characteristic *nuances* of Oriental thought and feeling. It is through such a medium that Mr. Kipling's genius seems to find its most ample and fitting expression; and perhaps it is on that account that his long stories are disappointing. They are necessarily in more or less literary English, for dialect can not be maintained beyond a certain length of time without fatiguing the reader.

"That Mr. Kipling has performed prodigies of ingenuity, and of more than ingenuity, with dialect in verse as well as in prose, is no more than the truth. He has indeed accomplished what, perhaps, was never achieved before. He has selected a *patois* the associations of which were wholly mean, commonplace, ludicrous, and degrading, and has made it the vehicle of poetry characterized by qualities the very reverse of these. But his verse, whether in plain English or in dialect, is superior to his prose in plain English, because poetry is more exacting than prose. It is the paradox of poetry that it permits no synonyms. The poet is in perpetual quest of the one inevitable word, and only the true poet can find it. Now in Mr. Kipling's poetry the right word emerges at the right moment, and no one can doubt that it *is* the right word.

> 'So it's knock out your pipes an' follow me!
> An' it's finish off your swipes an' follow me!
> Oh, 'ark to the fifes *a-crawlin'*!
> Follow me—follow me 'ome!'

Does not the word we have italicized almost make one catch one's breath by its startling appropriateness? But we must not begin to quote, or this article would never end."

M. Le Vicomte Robert d'Humieres writes about "The Poet of Energy" in *Literature:*

"The untirable, the admirable effort of the modern Anglo-Saxon race, it is that of which Rudyard Kipling has felt and rendered the poetry. One hears sound in his work the 'Seven Seas' of the planet under the intrepid keel of the ships of England, the gold on the counters of the merchants, the shrill fifes and the Afghan bullets, the banjo of the settler, who by the dying fire tells to the 'naked stars' the songs of exile.

"But his patriotism involves neither the narrowness nor the want of comprehension which are with us its purest forms. Let no one mistake, there is according to temperaments a fatherland above all the others. For a Renan, that will be truth; for a Kipling, it is action. This love of energy is the very axis of his mind."

Mr. Arthur J. Stringer, in a letter to the New York *Times*, has this to say about Mr. Kipling's women:

"Mr. Kipling is too big ever to be shaken by criticism, but at the same time, while he has been the apostle of masculinity in English poetry, his devotion to an idea has caused him a loss of power. We can not help admiring Mr. Kipling's aggressive masculinity. Our poetry needs such rejuvenating virility. But aggressive masculinity should not mean strident misogyny. All women are not like Mr. Kipling's. In 'The Ladies,' 'The Mary Gloster,' 'The Sergeant's Wedding,' 'McAndrew's Hymn,' in the 'Barrack-Room Ballads,' it is chiefly that side of woman which the swaggering and amorous-eyed redcoat sees that is presented with unpleasing persistency. It may be said that this treatment is purely dramatic. But the same treatment occurs in our author's short stories as persistently as in his verse. At a time when young men express the essence of their *ennui* and woman-weariness by quoting 'The Vampire' on every possible occasion, it can not but seem regrettable that Mr. Kipling's attitude toward the feminine sex should have exerted the influence it is found to have done.

"Very justly, Mr. Kipling, with his love for the reality, the virility, the activity of life, has been called the man's poet. But in this one point he fails as such. There is an absence of that chivalry still instinctive in men, that flower of knighthood which has enriched the lines of Tennyson, Browning, and Shelley. It is because the disillusioned *debauché* and the overwise *roué* assume this same Kiplingesque attitude that it must be marked as both regrettable and dangerous. I can not in this necessarily brief letter enlarge on this subject as I should wish, but it must have struck many of Kipling's admirers that our poet of Anglo-Saxon imperialism has his Achilles heel. And it is obvious that this weakness, if I may call it such, will be a perpetual source of danger to a writer who has long since passed out of his Sturm-und-Drang period."

The Newest Journalism.—Perhaps the first newspaper in the world was the *Acta Diurna* of ancient Rome, from which beginning we have come to the illustrated papers, Christmas numbers, and even the creations of yellow journalism. And now, in the appearance of a new paper also published in Rome, Mr. J. W. Murison, in the London *Outlook* (December 10), points out that there are indications that we have completed the circle of development and are coming within sight of the starting-point again. He says:

"The evangelist of the new gospel is *Vox Urbis*. The whole of the paper—a fortnightly, whose three-columned page is of a size with *The St. James's Gazette*—is written in Latin. It holds itself out to be a journal of letters and art—to translate the sub-heading literally. The declaration and the first leader are both set forth in Latin of excellent quality; and are studiously Ciceronian. One might pick a hole here and there if one wanted to; but one doesn't want to. The declaration starts in the old, old way. The paper is to fill an *ingens desiderium*, which is—we have tried to find another translation and can not—simply the long-felt want, beneath whose egis every enterprise is wont to make its start. The long-felt want is a medium of communication between learned men—and, we suppose, women. The last addition is made in view of some *fin-de-siècle* developments, tho the Latin has the noun only in the masculine, which, however, is usually held to include the feminine. So, with resignation, we translate comprehensively. The declaration is aimed at Volapük—and possibly (but we may be doing an injustice here) at English. Anyhow, Volapük has gone away to the dim regions of romance which gave it birth, and perhaps it is only our vanity that makes us suppose our own language is destined to oust all others. Latin, then, is no doubt entitled to its effort, and it would be churlish not to wish it well. Neither English nor Volapük—nor anything else—is named. The wording of the declaration is beautiful in its abstinence, sublime in its silence. . . . . .

"The success or failure . . . of the new paper seems to be bound up in a single proposition with a double aspect. Firstly, Are there enough educated people in the world to uphold the publication of a Latin paper? Secondly, of such educated people, if there are enough, will a sufficient number subscribe to it? With regard to the first question, we have not the slightest hesitation in answering in the affirmative. Of the second question we have more doubt."

NOTES.

FOR the first time a magazine relating exclusively to art is being published in Russia. The new magazine is issued monthly by the Russian Imperial Society, and follows the same lines as the English *Studio* and the French *L'Art et la Décoration*.

ANTWERP is preparing to celebrate the three-hundredth anniversary of the birth of Van Dyck, which occurs on March 22, 1899. In addition to the fêtes, there will be a loan exhibition of the artist's works, similar to the recent Rembrandt exhibition at Amsterdam.

DR. LEON KELLNER, who lately interviewed Rudyard Kipling for a German periodical, says: "Whenever Mr. Kipling speaks and turns his face full upon you, you would think you had before you a very wideawake, lively, and harmless child, but the profile shows a strong man who has grown up in the atmosphere of study. I have seldom received two such different impressions from one and the same face."

THE following neat and tender tribute from a well-known author to a well-known critic is printed in *Literature:*

> Critic, rail on—I will not say
> Your little sting is not a sting;
> That pleasure I'll not grudge to pay,
> You are so small and sad a Thing.
>
> Critic, when you and I are dead,
> Shaping in clay his first design,
> I see a sculptor mold a head—
> Yours is the clay; the image mine.

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SCIENCE AND INVENTION.

CINEMATOGRAPHS FOR THE MILLION.

A FRENCH authority, M. E. Hospitalier, tells us that the cinematograph is to become as common in the household as the opera-glass or the stereoscope, and that inexpensive and practical instruments are ready to be put upon the market. He predicts that if the makers of the picture-bands to be used with them agree on standard sizes, so that any band will fit any instrument, we may yet be receiving our daily news in the convincing form of cinematographic bands, which the instrument will convert for us into moving pictures representing yesterday's fire or prize-fight! Says M. Hospitalier (in *La Nature*, December 10):

"Thanks to the truly wonderful progress of science and its industrial applications, the cinematograph, whose first public appearance was scarcely three years ago, is about to take its place at the domestic fireside, along with the opera-glass and the stereoscope. Before long the world will be flooded with cheap cinematographic bands, as it is now with illustrated papers and magazines; but in place of simple pictures we shall have photographs in movement which will show us yesterday's occurrences, the last sensational duel, the fashionable marriage of the season, etc., for the price of a subscription to a cinematographic daily. . .

"How can such a revolution have been brought about? Every one understands that the ordinary cinematograph with its apparatus for optical projection and its bands at forty to sixty cents a yard is not to be had for nothing. . . . . .

"To popularize the cinematograph we must have a simple device of low price, easily manipulated, and using photographs printed on paper, without any perforation, which would raise the price and decrease the solidity.

"This kind of a cinematograph, or, to speak more accurately, cinematoscope, already exists; we have in our hands a specimen whose selling price will certainly not exceed 10 francs ($2) and which, manufactured in great quantities, can probably be turned out for 3 francs (60 cents). This type is not the only one that can be manufactured at a low price, and it is quite certain that when the attention of inventors has once been directed to this question, solutions will appear in great numbers. We attach no importance, therefore, to any one special form of apparatus, and we shall not describe the particular model before us further than to affirm, with the proof in our hands, that the problem has already been solved.

"The object of this note is to call the attention of the future producers of cinematographic bands to a special point which, if it should be neglected at the outset, might prevent the development of an important future industry based on an understanding between the constructors of cinematographs and the issuers of printed cinematographic bands. I refer to the length to be given to the bands and to the height of the images. Already there are at least four distinct types of cinematographic bands on celluloid films—the Edison, the Lumière, the Clément Maurice, and the Demény. We undoubtedly forget others still, for the pictures on the band of the cinematograph now in our possession are of a fifth type, about two inches long and an inch and a half in height. To make the use of the cinematoscope as common as that of the stereoscope to-day, all bands printed in whatever country must be usable in any kind of an instrument, no matter what the system may be. This result can be obtained only by adopting a uniform length of band and a uniform height of picture. As nothing has yet been done on a large and systematic scale, we believe that the French makers—they would influence all the European makers except perhaps the English—should adopt dimensions based on the decimal system for their bands. It seems to us that 45 millimeters [1⅘ inches] for the length and 35 millimeters [1⅖ inches] for the height would constitute proportions that are convenient and easily realized.

"As for applications, they are innumerable, besides the journal illustrated with moving pictures. What an aid cinematographic designs would be, for example, in the study of mechanics and geometry! What more instructive for a student than to draw the successive phases of a movement and to verify their exactness by running them through the cinematograph! What beautiful collections could be made by an enterprising publisher! It would be equally easy to combine two cinematographic apparatus and thus to make an economical and practical cinematographic stereoscope.

"Examples could be multiplied indefinitely, but enough has been said already to show the practicality of the project to widen the use of the cinematograph. The unification that has been of such service to the diffusion of photography and stereoscopy is yet more indispensable in cinematography. But we must make haste, for, if we wait till the approaching exposition, foreigners will invade our territory with their apparatus, and it will be too late; we should have to allow the English to set the pace. Let us hope that this fate will not befall the country that was the cradle of cinematography."—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

WILL DISEASE EVER DISAPPEAR?

THIS question is answered in the negative by Dr. William Ewart in the Harveian lecture on disease delivered recently by him in London. In part of his lecture Dr. Ewart reviews the state of the medical profession at the opening of the year; but, after a most encouraging outlook, in which he points out how disease has been met and vanquished at many points, he bids us not to be hasty in concluding that a time may come when we shall need no doctors at all. Disease, he says, is always with us. We quote from the report of the lecture in the London *Lancet* (December 17):

"Altho we may in the distant future live healthier lives and die from old age, some diseases must remain always. The most virulent diseases are those most easily prevented. But others are incapable of being suppressed, and they are apt to be perpetuated by our success in saving the weaker lives."

Of childhood and old age and their accompanying affections, Dr. Ewart says:

"Tho the decay of old age and the growth of the infant ought to be physiological processes, this is almost the exception rather than the rule, and at both extremes of life a variety of affections call for medical assistance. Childhood and youth will remain noxious to various infective diseases, but also to the ailments incidental to growth and development. The two dentitions, and particularly the onset of puberty, are times when medical advice must always remain essential. Among the minor zymotics which are not segregated measles is still prevalent and too often fatal, and our inability to check the progress and the fatal results of whooping-cough is an opprobrium."

The diseases to which the weaker sex is subject and the degeneracies of middle and advancing life will also, Dr. Ewart thinks, continue to defy medical skill in great measure, as will many of the nervous diseases. Of these he says:

"We may distinguish three degrees in nervous disorders. Among the so-called *functional* affections we have hitherto recognized a purely functional group, including hysteria. But there is also a group of 'neurastheniæ with degeneration' in which most of the symptoms are functional, but in which either syphilitic or simple malnutrition overtakes the nervous substance. I need not dwell upon the remaining group, that of the common forms of central or peripheral *structural* disease. It is evident that the study of the neuron and of its many sufferings will long offer an ample field for pathologists and physicians.

"Insanity prevails. Is its frequency increasing? This is not improbable. But, as with cancer, the statistics in the past have not been of a kind such as to enable us to compare the data with scientific accuracy. Insanity is more universally segregated than ever before, and the practitioner is on the whole little troubled with its treatment.

"There is a source of nervous ailments entirely special to this age and the unexpected outcome of our nineteenth-century chemistry and advertising. Intemperance in drugs is becoming more common, and it may possibly outstrip the abuse of alcohol and its evil results. The manufacture of new chemical products is supplying the public with endless carbon derivatives of high

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molecular power and of imperfectly known physiological action. Fortunately many advertised medicines are harmless, but their prolonged use is detrimental if only by delaying the treatment required by the original affection. Others are most dangerous, and their continued indulgence leads to confirmed neuroses or hopeless neurasthenia. Of this we all witness the daily demonstration. It thus comes to pass that as the therapeutic activity of the profession tends to abolish disease, that of the public is manufacturing it."

The lack of proper food and the use of improper food can not, of course, be combated by medicine. On this subject we are told:

"While the increasing purity of natural foods has reduced our mortality, modern ingenuity has been the unintended means of occasionally supplying poison in food. Fortunately ptomain poisoning is an unusual accident. A much more serious and widespread evil has been the indiscriminating substitution by mothers of condensed milk and manufactured foods for the fresh supply of milk. This neglect of fresh milk and the untutored administration of artificial foods, even of the best kind, without due regard to proportion and to suitability, have been disastrous. To this cause may be attributed the fact that, in spite of modern hygiene, infantile mortality from diarrhea and marasmus has shown no adequate decrease, and sometimes an increase over that noted before these modern inventions."

To conclude, Dr. Ewart sends forth a warning that is particularly needed by a nation that is about to embark on the control of vast tropical colonies. Of what he calls "The Danger from the Tropics," the lecturer says:

"Our chief danger in these times of rapid travel and traffic between the Old and the New Worlds is the importation of epidemics of virulent diseases, as in the case of cholera of old and recently of influenza with its peculiarly lasting effects; and the plague is our present nightmare. But short of so calamitous an invasion we may expect a growing number of patients returning from the tropics with impaired health. The study of the tropical diseases is therefore most opportune, for not only must they call for a considerable staff of medical advisers in the newly developed centers, but their sequelæ can not fail to require considerable treatment in this country. Short of the creation of a large and central hospital readily accessible from all the medical schools for the treatment and the study of these affections, nothing would seem to be adequate for the fulfilment of our long-neglected imperial responsibilities, for the needs which coming years will multiply, and for the requirements of this vast metropolis viewed as the center of an immense tropical empire. In conclusion, we may hope that our list of diseases is already complete; and even tho we might in future generations react differently to microbes which are now innocuous, our position, thanks to hygiene, will be safer than it ever was before."

In fact, the outlook continues fair for remunerative practise for a reasonable number of physicians, and while it is not quite so favorable for the human race in general as might be hoped, still, perhaps the race has only its own perverseness and that of its progenitors to thank for it.

When Acetylene is Dangerous.—Acetylene is likely to explode, we are told by Dr. H. Gerdes in *Glaser's Annalen* (abstracted in *The Engineering Magazine*, December), only when under pressure. He says: "It is now clearly established that pure acetylene does not explode at ordinary pressure, and that any decomposition or polymerization effected by heat is not transmitted through the mass, but is limited to the point of application of the heat. Such explosions as have been caused by the application of heat to closed vessels containing acetylene have occurred only after the heating has caused such an increase in pressure as to permit explosion. Under these circumstances it may be accepted that pure acetylene may be generated and stored in an ordinary gasholder with no more risk than is involved in similar work with the ordinary illuminating gas, and, so far as safety is concerned, it may be used freely when only reasonable caution is exercised." The gas can even be compressed with safety, it appears, provided it be mixed with ordinary illuminating gas, in which there is no free oxygen, up to a proportion of 50 per cent. "The assertion is distinctly made that there is no greater danger with the compressed mixture than with compressed coal gas, or even compressed air."

AN "EVOLUTIONIST'S" ATTACK ON THE EVOLUTIONARY PHILOSOPHY.

THE word "evolution" is used loosely by the public in two senses: first, biologically, to denote the development of all existing organisms from a primitive organism; and, second, physiologically, to denote the development of the whole existing universe from matter endowed with energy in some simple form. A man may, of course, believe in biological evolution without being an evolutionary philosopher; and hence we find Prof. W. K. Brooks of Johns Hopkins University, who is an "evolutionist" in the first or Darwinian sense, attacking, in a recent lecture, evolution in the second or Spencerian sense. Professor Brooks's lecture, which was one of a course on the Foundations of Zoology, was delivered at Columbia University last month (December), and is published in *Science* (December 23). Professor Brooks avows himself an admirer and upholder of the scientific doctrine of evolution so far as it is based on knowledge; that is, as he regards it, so far as it relates to biological fact; but he deplores the tendency to hold, as a sort of creed, an unproved philosophy of evolution, such as he considers Herbert Spencer's to be. He says:

"The writer yields to no one in admiration of the doctrine of evolution. So far as it is a scientific generalization from our knowledge of nature, it is one of the greatest triumphs of the human mind, rivaled only by its reciprocal, the doctrine of dissolution.

"Experience seems to show very clearly that our system of nature is, on the whole, moving toward what commends itself to our minds as evolution or progress to greater and greater perfection. While there is just as much evidence that each step in evolution is also a step toward dissolution, we have the same rational ground for expecting that this movement will continue, without any sudden radical change, that we have for other expectations which we base on knowledge of nature.

"So far as the doctrine of evolution is based on knowledge, it is not only a part, but one of the most valuable and suggestive parts, of the system of science, for the scientific law of evolution is part of science; but the philosophy of evolution is held by many as a creed, superior to and able to direct science. As men of science, we, like Huxley,* have 'nothing to say to any philosophy of evolution,' except so far as it stands in the way of scientific progress. . . . . .

"So far as the philosophy of evolution involves belief that nature is determinate, or due to a *necessary law* of *universal* progress or evolution, it seems to me to be utterly unsupported by evidence, and totally unscientific.

"This system of philosophy teaches that, for purposes of illustration, our universe may be compared to an unstable, homogeneous, saturated solution, which remains unchanged so long as it is undisturbed, but crystallizes when shaken. The process of evolution must be supposed to start with a disturbance or shock. Something, inherent in the nature of things, or outside, must press the button; but matter and its properties do all the rest, just as crystallization follows from the properties of the solution."

Just as the solution contains the possibility of the crystals, so the homogeneous mass of matter from which the universe is supposed to have sprung must, the evolutionary philosopher says, have contained the potentiality of all that has taken place in it since it existed. This idea Professor Brooks proceeds to controvert. He says:

"I am no philosopher, but this does not seem obvious or necessary to me. Nature, as we know it, consists in the main of per-

*"I have nothing to say to any philosophy of evolution. . . . Attempts to construct such a philosophy may be useful, but in my judgment they are premature."—HUXLEY, "Collected Essays," v.

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mutations and combinations. 'I do *not* know,' is one thing, and 'I *do* know not,' is another, even if some fail to discriminate.

"'It is easy to perceive that the prodigious variety which appears, both in the works of nature and in the acts of men, and which constitutes the greatest part of the beauty of the universe, is owing to the multitude of different ways in which its several parts are mixed with or placed near each other.'

"When we say three dice *can* be thrown in only two hundred and sixteen ways, all we mean is that we *can not* throw them in any other way. We can not throw three zeroes, or three sevens, in any way with ordinary dice without changing the marks; but we can not attribute to the dice any latent capacity for being thrown in any way, or any capacity to do anything whatever as dice, even after we have been informed by Haeckel that 'the real maker of the organic world is, in all probability, a tetrahedron.'* . . . . . .

"Twenty-eight figures are required to express the number of distinct deals in whist.

"'If the whole population of the world, say one thousand millions of persons, were to deal cards day and night for a hundred million years,' they might justify Sarah Battle's criticism of the game, but they would not in that time have exhausted one hundredth thousandth part of the possible deals.

"It is not clear to me that combinations are latent in the things combined. In fact, the bearing of these things on the matter seems to be negative and passive, rather than active or positive.

"It is not clear that, with all their latent potency, a pack of cards would ever evolve a single hand without a dealer; but if a part of the universe, so trivial and insignificant, presents opportunities so boundless, the matter and motion of our universe may present to a dealer opportunities for universes without end, no one like another. I do not see how one can assert that anything in the material universe is necessary or predetermined, except so far as it is one among an infinite number of possibilities."

Professor Brooks admits at once that nature is "mechanical," in the sense that it is orderly. Everything happens according to law; but this, he asserts, is quite a different thing from saying that it is predetermined by necessity to happen in one way and no other. He says:

"Belief that everything in nature is mechanical is neither more nor less than belief that everything in nature is orderly and what might have been expected; and if any one thinks that discovery that things do take place in order is any reason why they should, his distrust of science is only reasonable; for science is not for such minds as his.

"It is in my mind to ask a question. Will any amount of knowledge of matter and motion tell the evolutionist whether I shall ask it or pass it by and go on to another subject? If he answer Yes, I ask my question: How does he know? If he assure me that a being so reasonable as I am known to be will not ask anything that might not have been expected I thank him for the compliment, for I try to be a reasonable creature. But if he assert that his confidence in my thoughts and actions proves that they are *necessary*, I must ask him how he knows; for I fail to see how proof that an event is mechanical and neither less nor more than might have been expected shows that it is *necessary*; nor can I see any more reason why my confidence in my freedom proves that my acts are *arbitrary*. . . . . .

"Living things are continually bringing about rearrangements of matter and motion which would never, so far as I can see, have come about without them, and many of the things which they thus bring about are useful to the beings which bring them about. The earth would be very different in many respects if man had never inhabited it, and the effects of his activity will last as long as matter, whatever may be his fate. His influence upon the earth would have been very different if the plants of Carboniferous times had not stored up solar energy and worked their changes in matter millions of years ago. If the dodo, and the great auk, and the halicore, and the American bison could tell their story, they would bear witness that man is a factor in the order of nature."

Believing as he does that the philosophy of Herbert Spencer is unproven and unscientific, it is natural that Professor Brooks should object to the double use of the word "evolution" that was noted at the beginning of this article. He therefore proposes that the biologist should resign it to the philosophers. He concludes:

"One word in its time plays many parts, and the word evolution' has had many meanings. To-day, in popular estimation, an evolutionist is not a follower of Bonnet; nor one who is occupied with the binomial theorem, or with the evolutions of fleets and armies. Neither is he a cultivator of natural science. Whatever the word may have meant in the past, it has, in common speech, come to mean a believer in that philosophy of evolution which, according to such evolutionists as Huxley, is 'premature.' Since this is so, and since the growth of language is beyond individual control, would it not be well for them to stand were Huxley stands, and 'have nothing to say to any philosophy of evolution,' to stop calling themselves 'evolutionists,' and to be content with the good old name of 'Naturalist'?"

* "Monism," pp. 27, 28.

BURNING OUT A STEEL VAULT WITH THE ELECTRIC ARC.

NOT long ago we described some experiments that showed how powerful a tool the electric arc would be in the hands of a bank burglar who was also an electrician of even ordinary attainments. The experiments caused a little excitement at the time, but no burglar has yet taken advantage of the gratuitous

BURNING OUT A BANK VAULT BY MEANS OF THE ELECTRIC ARC.

instruction thus bestowed upon him, and their results have almost been forgotten. Now, however, they have been used for the legitimate purpose of removing a steel vault in Cincinnati, Ohio. The vault was very strong, but old-fashioned, and the space was needed for other purposes. The problem of getting rid of it was, however, a difficult one. Miles Greenwood, a well-known engineer of his day, who built it about 1860, remarked when he had finished it that the only way to get rid of it would be "by burying it." Says *The Electrical Review* (December 21), from which we take this account:

"It [the vault] was said to be the finest in the United States, and was built of steel two and one-half inches thick. The plates were screwed together, and the screws were then cut off and chilled. There were but two openings to the steel box, and these were doors fitted with all kinds of combination locks and bolts. . .

"For ten years the Lafayette Bank officials have been wanting to get rid of the vault, as they needed the room it occupied. Contractors were informed that they could have the steel if they would take the vault away; but they found that there was only one way to get rid of it, and that was to blow it up. If that were done, the building would go with the vault. Finally, Mr. Wil-

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liam Stacey, of the Stacey Manufacturing Company, was sent for, and after looking over the job accepted the contract, not to remove all the vault, but to leave enough of it so that the bank could use it for a safe for its books. Then the bank officials asked Mr. Stacey how he was going to do the job, and he informed them he was going to burn out the vault.

"The Devere Electric Company was called in, and a few days ago the task was begun. They tapped one of the arc-light wires, and a rubber-handled tool carrying an arc-light carbon was attached to the circuit. . . . At the first experiment a hole as big as two silver dollars and one-half inch deep was burned in the hard steel in less than a minute. In a comparatively short time a hole was burned clear through the steel plate, much to the astonishment of the bankers who were present at the test. Some slight changes were made in the experimental apparatus, and it is presumed that Mr. Stacey will carry out his contract with entire success."

Naming a Planet.—The new minor planet whose discovery was recently described in these pages, and whose unique character and singular orbital position have attracted the interest of all astronomers, has not yet received any name, being now known only by the letters D Q. Prof. S. C. Chandler, in a letter to *Science* (November 11), suggests the name Pluto. Such small bodies are not now usually named, but, says Professor Chandler, "It is manifest that this little object is destined to play a rôle in our astronomy of very great importance. It opens up, at a stroke, an unexpected and royal road to the problem of the solar parallax, as well as to the nutation, the moon's mass, and the aberration. Melancholy as the statement may be, it will reduce many of the existing discussions of these elements to the value of waste paper, records of futile effort." In view of these facts the professor is decidedly in favor of a name. Of his own suggestion he says: "There is a certain fitness in the appellation arising from its faintness or invisibility on ordinary occasions. Pluto, under his older name, Hades, was the 'invisible' or 'unknown,' the God of Darkness. This invisibility he removes, with the helmet forged for his concealment by Vulcan, when he comes to perihelion opposition, shining then as a comparatively bright star, perhaps visible to the naked eye. This helmet, by the way, could serve as his conventional planetary symbol, if one is desired. The addition of new asteroids to our lists has become such a nuisance that ordinarily the attachment of ridiculous names may be regarded as one of the helpful influences in discouraging further useless multiplication of these troublesome wards of astronomy. But when one is born into the solar system which gives promise of paying for its keep, some attention should be devoted to a proper christening. In the solution of the problems I have indicated, Pluto may be counted on to pay handsomely for his board and clothes."

The World's Production of Iron.—"Some good British authorities," says *The Engineering and Mining Journal*, "are inclined to view the competition of American iron and steel with composure, and rather deprecate the disturbance of a part of the trade over the new development. While they look upon the United States as the great producer of the future, and anticipate a steady increase of our exports, they believe that this growth will not seriously injure British trade. They point out that the world's consumption of iron, and especially of steel, has increased rapidly during recent years, and is now undoubtedly very close to the production. The reserve stocks are diminishing rather than increasing. Now Germany, tho her iron production is steadily growing, does not increase very fast, chiefly because she can not do so without depending on foreign ores, which the German ironmasters do not like. France and Belgium are at their upper limit of output. Under these circumstances, should an increase in production be called for, the United States would be the only country in a condition to respond at short notice. Our fuel and ore reserves are large enough to permit a great expansion, and we can make iron and steel at a lower cost than any other country. This is a sensible view of the matter, and approaches the truth very closely. The demand for iron and steel will probably be large all over the world for some years to come, and it is to the world's advantage, as well as our own, that we can furnish a large share of the supplies."

Hearing the Temperature.—"As the microscope brings into sight things invisible to the unaided eye, so the telephone is now bringing to the ear things hitherto inaudible," says *Industries and Iron*. "This has recently been made possible by Mr. G. C. Whipple, of the Brooklyn Water-Works, who has invented an electrical instrument by which the various ranges of temperature may be heard in an ordinary telephone-receiver. The apparatus in external appearance is like an ordinary electric battery box. From one side of the box extends a long insulated wire, carrying a small coil of bare wire on the end of it. From the other side of the box extend wires which hold a telephone-receiver. The latter is to be held to the ear so that the temperature into which the bare coil is thrust may be heard. Heat or cold acting on the bare coil of wire causes an electric current to set up a buzzing in the telephone. When the instrument is used the telephone is held to the ear, while the listener looks at a dial on the battery-box marked with figures representing degrees of temperature above and below zero. There is a pointer pivoted in the middle of the dial face. The observer proceeds to turn the pointer from figure to figure on the dial. When the telephone is placed first to the ear a loud buzzing sound is heard. This is because the pointer does not happen to be at the figure representing the temperature of the water in which the bare coil is placed. As the pointer nears the figure that indicates the correct temperature, the buzzing sound in the telephone becomes fainter until when it comes opposite it, it stops altogether. As soon as the buzzing stops, the observer knows that the temperature of the water has been found. The instrument is now being used in cold-storage warehouses to ascertain the temperature of the various rooms without opening them."

SCIENCE BREVITIES.

TESLA, according to *Popular Science News*, thinks a man has just so many hours to be awake, and the fewer of these he uses up each day the more days will they last. "I believe that a man might live two hundred years if he would sleep most of the time. That is why negroes live to such an advanced age, because they sleep so much. The proper way to economize life is to sleep every moment that it is not necessary or desirable that you should be awake."

THE ranks of those who think that Nikola Tesla has been ill-advised in the manner in which he has given details of his recent inventions to the public have been joined by *The Scientific American*. Says that journal: "We note with considerable regret that subsequently to his first extraordinary interviews, Mr. Tesla has seen fit to place himself at the service of those New York Sunday papers that are more or less notoriously sensational. . . . Judging from the comments of the scientific and technical press, we are not alone in our expressions of regret that any one of Mr. Tesla's undoubted ability should indulge in such obvious and questionable self-advertisement. That the author of the multiphase system of transmission should, at this late day, be flooding the press with rhetorical bombast that recall the wildest days of the Keely motor mania is inconsistent and inexplicable to the last degree."

"DESPITE the appearances of physical degeneracy," says Prof. W. Z. Ripley in *Appleton's Popular Science Monthly*, December, "the Jew betrays an absolutely unprecedented tenacity of life. It far exceeds, especially in the United States, that of any other known people. This we may illustrate by the following example: Suppose two groups of one hundred infants each, one Jewish, one of average American parentage (Massachusetts), to be born on the same day. In spite of all the disparity of social conditions in favor of the latter, the chances, determined by statistical means, are that one half of the Americans will die within forty-seven years; while the first half of the Jews will not succumb to disease or accident before the expiration of seventy-one years. The death-rate is really but little over half that of the average American population. This holds good in infancy as in middle age. Lombroso has put it in another way. Of one thousand Jews born, two hundred and seventeen die before the age of seven years; while four hundred and fifty-three Christians—more than twice as many—are likely to die within the same period."

"THE telegraph is the only institution of modern science which has obtained any considerable foothold in China," says Messrs. Fearon and Allen in an article in *The Engineering Magazine*, November. "Peking is connected by wire with Tientsin and with Manchurian points up to the Russian frontier, whence connection is continued by Russian Siberian lines to Europe. The capital is also connected with all the treaty ports and principal cities in China proper, and these again with each other. Canton has connection also through Yunnan with Burma. China learned the value of the telegraph in the war with France, and it has long since been admitted to have 'become indispensable.' The telegraph, however, is under imperial control, and there is probably little opportunity for its extension as a private enterprise. Chinese writing being not alphabetic, but syllabic, and there being as many characters as there are words in use, the telegraphic messages are sent in a number cipher. For transcribing messages received a double-ended type is used; on one end is the character, and on the other the corresponding number. When a message is received, it is set up by the numbers, and then printed from the reverse, or character, end."

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THE RELIGIOUS WORLD.

A GERMAN EFFORT TO CHRISTIANIZE PALESTINE.

DURING the journey of the German Emperor to Palestine he evinced considerable interest in the colonies of the German Temple Society, and in this way prominence has been given to this unique religio-social association and to its colonies, which are certainly the garden spots in modern Syria. In the *Warte des Tempels* (No. 54), the organ of the society, we have from the pen of one of its chief members, Richard E. Funcke, what is to all intents and purposes an official report of the genesis and present status of the organization's work. From this source we glean the following:

The actual founding of the colonies of the Temple Society in Palestine dates back to 1868 and 1871, but the beginnings of the agitation that eventually led to their establishment run back to 1844. The leader in the movement was a Protestant theologian of Würtemberg, Christoph Hoffmann, who, as a pious and positive Christian, found himself involved in a serious controversy with Dr. Vischer, a leading professor of theology in the University of Tübingen, but a representative of neological thought after the manner of David Strauss, the author of the famous, or rather infamous "Life of Jesus," then controlling German rationalistic thought. Hoffmann appealed to positive believers of all confessions to join him in a movement leading to the organization of a truly Christian society and state. At that time, owing to political causes, all eyes were directed to Palestine. In 1861 a Temple Society was organized by Hoffmann and his friends, the name indicating the ideal and aim of the association, namely, that all mankind should become the temple of the living God.

The society was and is cosmopolitan in character, granting its members absolute liberty in all matters of belief, demanding only that they acknowledge Christian principles in general and believe that it is the divine aim of man to exemplify in their relations to each other the loving spirit exhibited by Christ. Hoffmann thought that these ideals could be realized best among the Oriental peoples, and claimed that these peoples could be raised to a higher stage of Christian culture only by seeing with their own eyes in their own midst the evidences of a positive and deeper type of Christian culture.

After many preparations the first colony was established in 1869 in Haifa near Mount Carmel, and in a few months later a second was begun in Jaffa. In 1871 the large agricultural vineyard colony was founded in Sarona, not far from Jaffa. The Jerusalem colony is the largest and is found on the way to Bethlehem. In addition the Templers have settlements at Nazareth, Ramelet, Rephaim, Baireut, and also Alexandria.

These colonies are a marvel of German industry and Christian enterprise. All of them have excellent schools, and together they manage a college. These schools have in all these years been the centers of German Christian culture, and this the German Government has recognized by granting them an annual appropriation. In Jaffa there is also a hospital and in Jerusalem a sanitarium under the auspices of the Temple people. The total membership of these colonies is about 1,500, and these people in addition to agricultural pursuits are engaged in trade and manufacture of various kinds. Their chief articles of export are olive oil, olive-oil soap, and wines from Haifa and Sarona.

All the colonists have continued to maintain their political status as citizens of the German empire, and they are accordingly under the protection of its authorities and amenable to its courts of justice. Yet the colonies of the society are not the possession of the empire, but private property of the association. This condition of affairs was especially confirmed by an irade of the Sultan last December. All of the colonists, every one of whom is also a member of the Temple Society, is under the direction of the central committee with headquarters in Jerusalem. This committee has as its advisers subcommittees of various kinds. The ambition of the society is to establish its colonies throughout the country, and by their example prompt the natives to take a deeper interest in better agricultural methods and become attached to Christian culture and civilization. During the past quarter of a century the Temple colonies have experienced many ups and downs, but the prospects for a healthy development of the original ideals and ideas are now more flattering than ever, especially as the German Emperor and the German church authorities have shown great interest in the society and its work. Yet the chief aim of the society is not economic success, but rather religious progress and development. The founding of the colonies was an act of Christian faith; their prosperity and aim continue to be conceived in the same spirit.—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

WHERE DID THE SPIRITUALISTS GET THEIR DOCTRINES?

ALL that modern spiritism teaches about the mysteries of the future life and the nature and attributes of spirits has been anticipated, according to Mr. George Trobridge, in the writings of Emanuel Swedenborg. Mr. Trobridge does not seem disposed to question the authenticity of spirit manifestations in general, but he denies novelty to their teachings and doubts the value of what they have to reveal. In *The New Century Review* (November) he writes:

"The spirits who are ever ready to communicate with man are usually, Swedenborg tells us, of a low type, and the experience of spiritists confirms his dictum. They are commonly regardless of the truth, and are adepts at personation. Indeed, the whole business is so fraught with deception and folly on the part both of spirits and mediums that there is no dependence to be placed on any communication received, whether orally or through table-rapping, planchette, automatic writing, or any of the means by which such messages come. When it is proved that the revelations of the other life which spiritists claim to have given to mankind, and which, more than anything else, draw people toward spiritism, are but a partial and disjointed statement of facts already recorded, wise men will be disposed to leave such doubtful practises alone."

Mr. Trobridge quotes the creed of spiritism, as summarized by one of its most prominent advocates in England, Prof. Alfred Russell Wallace, in his work on "Miracles and Modern Spiritualism." He then gives a great number of passages from Swedenborg, all of which bear a striking doctrinal resemblance to the teachings of the modern cult. Professor Wallace's summary is as follows:

"1. Man is a duality, consisting of an organized spiritual form, evolved coincidently with and permeating the physical body, and having corresponding organs and development.

"2. Death is the separation of this duality, and effects no change in the spirit, morally or intellectually.

"3. Progressive evolution of the intellectual and moral nature is the destiny of individuals; the knowledge, attainments, and experience of earth-life forming the basis of spirit-life.

"4. Spirits can communicate through properly endowed mediums; . . . but . . . their communications will be fallible, and must be judged and tested just as we do those of our fellow men."

Here are some of the paragraphs Mr. Trobridge quotes from the great Swedish mystic:

1. "Good spirits, with whom I have conversed on this subject, were grieved at heart that such ignorance should prevail within the church concerning the nature of heaven, and concerning spirits and angels; and they indignantly charged me to declare that they are not minds without form, nor ethereal specters, but that they are men in form, and that they see, hear, and feel as perfectly as men in the world."—("Heaven and Hell," No. 77.)

"The form of man's spirit is the human form. . . . This may be seen . . . from the consideration that man is man by virtue of his spirit, and not by virtue of his body; and that the spirit is not added to the corporeal form, but that the corporeal form is added to the spirit; for the spirit is clothed with a body according to its own form."—(*Ibid.*, No. 453.)

2. "When the body is no longer capable of performing its functions in the natural world, corresponding to the thoughts and af-

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fections of its spirit, which are derived from the spiritual world, man is said to die, and this occurs when the respiratory motion of the lungs and systolic motions of the heart cease. Nevertheless, man does not then die, but is only separated from the corporeal frame, which was of use to him in the world; for the man himself lives. . . . When man dies, he only passes from one world into another; and, on this account, *death*, in the internal sense of the word, signifies the resurrection, and continuation of life."—("Heaven and Hell," No. 445.)

3. "Death is but a continuation of life, with this advantage, that the passage is from an obscure perception of life into a clear one, and, to those who are in faith toward the Lord, into a perpetually increasing consciousness of existence."—("Arcana Cælestia," No. 448.)

"Men think also, after death, far more perspicuously and distinctly than during their previous life; for, in a spiritual state of being, more is involved in one idea than a thousand while in the natural life. . . . Their desires and affections, moreover, are incomparably stronger than those possessed during the life of the body."—(*Ibid.*, No. 322.)

4. "Spirits, if permitted, could possess those who speak with them so utterly that they would be as tho they were entirely in the world; and, indeed, in a manner so manifest that they could communicate their thoughts by words, through their medium, and even by letters; for they have sometimes, and indeed often, directed my hand when writing, as tho it were quite their own; so that they thought that it was not I, but themselves who were writing."—("Spiritual Diary," No. 557.)

From the last citation we learn that even automatic writing, a supposedly modern marvel, was not unknown a hundred years ago.

From the letters of "Julia," written automatically through the hand of Mr. W. T. Stead, another prominent exponent of spiritism, Mr. Trobridge gives a number of extracts. We quote enough to carry on his comparison:

1. "You are never, for one moment, idle from influencing eternity. . . . You are, far more really than you imagine, making this world of ours in that world of yours. . . . You make your next life."

2. "People don't believe in the hell of fire any more, and they have, by their recoil, forgotten that there is a real hell."

3. "What I said about love being the breath of our life is true."

And here again are some corresponding passages from Swedenborg:

1. "Whatever a man has done, or even thought, in the life of the body, returns successively in the other life. . . . With the wicked, all their evil deeds and thoughts then vividly return; but with the good it is not so, all their states of goodness, friendship, and love, recurring with the greatest possible delight and happiness."—("Arcana Cælestia," No. 823.)

2. "Love to the Lord and charity toward the neighbor make heaven, but the love of self and the love of the world make hell."—("Heaven and Hell," No. 151, note.)

"Some persons have believed very confidently that God turns away His face from man, rejects him, and casts him into hell, and that He is angry with him on account of his evils. . . . True doctrine declares that the Lord never turns away His face from man, never rejects him, never casts any one into hell, and is never angry. . . . Evil in man is hell within him. . . . He casts himself into hell and not the Lord. . . . All man's will and love remains with him after death, and therefore *he who wills and loves evil in the world, wills and loves the same evil in the other life, and is no longer willing to be withdrawn from it.* This is the reason that a man who is in evil is tied to hell, and actually is there as to his spirit; and that, after death, he desires nothing more earnestly than to be where his own evil is."—("Heaven and Hell," Nos. 545, 547.)

"The inhabitants of hell do not actually live in fire, but the fire is an appearance. . . . Infernal fire denotes the lust of doing evil."—(*Ibid.*, No. 571.)

3. "Love is the life of man . . .; love is his very life. . . . No one knows what the life of man is, unless he knows that it is love."—("Divine Love and Wisdom.")

WHY THE CHURCHES FAIL IN THE POOR DISTRICTS.

MR. WILLIAM I. COLE, one of the leaders at the "South End House," a Boston social settlement, tells us, in a book just issued, that none of the religious campaigns in the South End can be called really successful. As that quarter of Boston is typical of many city sections that the churches are trying to reach, his discussion of the situation there is of widespread interest and importance. The Catholic church, he finds, is losing its hold on its young men. Berkeley Temple, "the largest and most widely known Congregational church in New England," brings permanently within its influence not more than two or three of the strictly non-churchgoing class a year. The various rescue missions, the Salvation Army and the Volunteers, deal with the roving class and affect but little the permanent religious situation. "The meetings at headquarters," Mr. Cole says, "seem to be attended mainly by members of the Army and their direct beneficiaries."

The Roman Catholic church in the South End, Mr. Cole further tells us, is holding its ground remarkably, but is meeting with loss in two ways:

"There is a tendency for young men to become indifferent, and detach themselves altogether. What is more serious than that, however, is the merely superficial connection which many people keep up with the church. These things are the result largely of moral indolence, but in part they represent intellectual doubt and revolt from priestly authority. To serious minds, still retaining their instinctive loyalty, the church will gradually, no doubt, adapt itself. For the others, the outlook is rather dark. A more efficient system of Sunday-schools and more thorough pastoral visitation will certainly be necessary. One would be rash to say off-hand that the Catholic churches ought to institute a concrete social campaign. The very aloofness of the clergy from lay interests contributes to that great moral reserve by which the church is able to touch life at a few points of vital need with supernatural power. This it does, not only in the larger ecclesiastical relation, but in the inner privacy of the home as well, by its solemn presence at great crises of the family life. The Roman Catholic church is in some respects the foremost positive agency for good in the district. Its formalism and its unenlightenment, like the characteristic defects of Protestantism, are the reverse aspect of its qualities."

As for the Jews, the struggle between their intense racial loyalty and the tendency to conform to American customs keeps Judaism in the South End in continual peril.

Only about one third of the professed Protestants attend church regularly. One reason for this, in Mr. Cole's view, is the fact that Protestantism lacks "that call to devotion in which Catholicism, in its vivid sense of the nearness of God, is so strong." To whatever else it may be due, the failure of Protestantism is not due to laziness or insincerity. The pastors and their associates are "exceptionally genuine" and "too many of them overworked." The experiment of popular services and entertainments is carried to extreme lengths. Mr. Cole thinks that an important reason for the difficulty is that the churches have no parishes. Denominationalism is a source of weakness:

"The churches do not join hands to encompass the whole situation. Taken together, the Protestant churches do not present a solid, imposing front that impresses the imagination as do the Roman Catholic churches. On the contrary, they exist independent of, and almost unknown to, one another. There is very little proselyting among different Protestant denominations, as there is very little between Protestants and Catholics; but, for the lack of some positive, common understanding, the churches work at cross purposes, in patches, and uneconomically.

"There are many other possible grounds of explanation. A plan is tried for a time and then given up for some newer plan. There is lack of continuous effort on a few simple, broad lines. Few if any of the churches look carefully after the members,

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much less after all who attend their services. Almost none have a comprehensive knowledge of their respective neighborhoods."

But there is a difficulty much deeper. Mr. Cole continues:

"The feeling of a considerable part of the local community toward the churches is matter for serious concern. The working people, especially those in the various labor organizations, regard the churches with more or less indifference, if not with actual hatred. In other words, there is a perceptible and constantly increasing estrangement between the working classes, as such, and the churches. While this may be and undoubtedly is to a large extent the fault of the working classes through their misunderstanding of the real spirit of the churches, yet to a greater extent it is the fault of the churches themselves. Instead of devoting themselves solely to the moral leadership of the community, the churches are engaged too much about dogmatic creeds, for which the ordinary workingman has no taste. Very largely, also, their members represent, perhaps unwittingly, the attitude of a superior social class both in their informal relations among themselves and in their dealings with working people. There is no true democracy either within the church or where the church comes in contact with the community. While the Roman Catholic church is free in a measure from the taint of social distinction, yet, even there, for a man who has been bred in the bracing democratic atmosphere of trade-unionism, the Roman Catholic church, with its autocratic system of government, becomes difficult, if not impossible. The great trouble with the church is that the persons who compose it have never yet come into the right sort of personal human relations with men. Without that the religious message of any time can never be real."

Yet in spite of all this, Mr. Cole finds in the situation a reason for hope:

"In the midst of this doubtful situation there exists one unchangeable and, in the long run, sufficient source of confidence. The power of faith may languish, loyalty to the church may shrink, but there is still in the heart of the people a constant undercurrent of essential religious feeling. Even among those whose lives are evil, one comes after a while to expect certain instant noble impulses. As Canon Barnett of Toynbee Hall has said about the men and women of East London: 'Many have given up religion altogether, and carry about a buried life. It is buried, but it is not dead. When it really hears God's voice, it will rise.'"

IRREVERENCE IN OUR POETRY.

DOES a tendency toward irreverence naturally accompany a sense of strength in a nation or in an individual? The question is suggested by an article in *The Sunday Times-Union and Citizen* (Jacksonville, Fla.), which calls attention to the fact that much of our most virile poetry is distinctly lacking in at least the outward appearance of reverence. We quote in part, as follows:

"When an American taught that to save a boy's life was better 'than loafing around the throne,' and that 'Christ would not be hard on a man that died for men,' Europe put on her glasses and sighed 'How American!'

"We fear irreverence has encroached on the old earnestness, but the fault is in our blood, not in our residence. Kipling is Anglo-Saxon, not American, and he is a chief sinner. Who can go farther than his sailors, who exult in escape from storm and wreck by singing:

> 'Overloaded, undermanned, meant to founder, we
> Euchered God Almighty's storm, bluffed the Eternal Sea.'

"Is there not something of the ring of the Fallen Angel's defiance in this? Something of the spirit of Apulian Robert, whose comment on the story of the Crucifixion was, 'Had I been there with fifty of my Norman lances this thing had not been; why did not Peter send word to my father?' But Kipling comforts his 'Workmen' by telling them:

> 'And if we come when the sentry slept, and softly scurry through,
> By the favor of God we might know as much as our father, Adam, knew.'

"Again Kipling passes the bounds when he ridicules the hope of the idealists to 'even up things':

> 'And the Young King said, 'I have found it, the road to the rest ye seek,
> The strong shall wait for the weary, the hale shall halt for the weak:
> With the even tramp of an army where no man breaks from the line,
> Ye shall march to peace and plenty in the bond of brotherhood—Sign.

"The popular poet still is a preacher, and Kipling strikes a false note when he gives a reception after death:

> The wind that blows between the worlds, it cut him like a knife,

and Tomlinson took up the tale and spoke of his sin in life:

> 'Once I ha' laughed at the power of Love and twice at the grip of the grave,
> And thrice I ha' patted my God on the head that men might call me brave,
> The Devil he blew on a brandered soul and set it aside to cool:
> "Do ye think I would waste my good pit coal on the hide of a brain-sick fool?"'

"Now, is this the spirit of stubborn hardihood that comes by right of blood to Lear and Macbeth in their extremity, or the sentimental disgust at law and order which to the Latin seems strength and in fools supplies the place of bravery? Are not our poets going too far in a wrong direction, at the end of which is the foul mud of the gutters and not the soil from which roses and violets spring?"

SOME RELIGIOUS IDEAS OF SIX THOUSAND YEARS AGO.

THE state of religious thought among the Egyptians six thousand years ago becomes a matter of less remote interest when we are told that the doctrines growing therefrom had a probable influence on the development of Christian dogma among the early fathers of the church, as well as an undoubted influence, in an earlier age, on the teaching of Moses. Such a statement is made by Josephine Williams in *The Westminster Review* (December). So many and diverse are the pieces that go to make up the pattern, the writer tells us, that it is by no means easy to reconstruct the Egyptian system of theology. She says:

"We find in Egypt traces of tree-worship and stone-worship, both said to be very primitive forms of religion and found in many parts of the world. Whether this was the survival of the religious beliefs of the aboriginal inhabitants which remained to be more or less incorporated into the religions of the immigrants, or whether the survivals of this earlier form of worship were already found in some or all of the religions brought into Egypt, we can not tell. We must remember that the Egyptians were the most conservative of peoples, and that for fear of losing any truth, they embodied in their religion doctrines which to a logical mind would exclude one another—doctrines which even in the state of knowledge of that time must have appeared contradictory to a thoughtful Egyptian; but his mystic tendencies enabled him to get over the difficulties and to rest in the hope that all would be made clear and brought into harmony in the future world, to which every pious Egyptian looked forward as the sequence of the life on earth.

"We must remember, too, that there were at *least* four systems of religion brought into the country and more or less amalgamated even before history begins [*i.e.*, before 4400 B.C.], so that we shall be more inclined to have patience with the manifest contradictions in their religious ideas, and not expect to fully understand what the Egyptians *themselves* could not have comprehended in any real meaning of the word."

Moreover, discoveries may be made any day that will modify all present generalizations.

All Egypt was divided into forty-two districts, which the Greeks called nomes. Each nome had its chief god, whom the people of that district called the Creator, and a number of secondary deities. Often an inferior god of one nome would be the chief divinity of another. The chief god was not generally regarded as standing alone, but usually there were three, standing in the relation to one another of the chief god, his wife, and son. The inferior gods associated with this triad usually numbered nine or some multiple of nine.

Most important among the Egyptians, we are further told, were

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the cults of the sun-gods and of the Osirian cycle. There were also, in addition to animal gods, gods and goddesses with no family history, whose sole reason for being would seem to have been the embodiment of abstract ideas. The animal gods the writer accounts for by the intensely realistic character of the Egyptian mind, which could not conceive of the existence of an immaterial soul or spirit apart from the body of its occupation. Thus it was quite in accord with Egyptian ideas that the god could only dwell among and hold communion with men by becoming incarnate in some animal.

Of the sun-gods, Ra, the self-begotten, self-existent one, is the chief. Heliopolis was the great center of his worship. At first he existed alone, but afterward became the father of the twins Shu and Tefnut, who were somehow identified with the constellation "the twins" in the Zodiac. Shu married his twin sister, and they became the parents of Seb, the earth, and Nüt, the sky. With the exception of Ra these deities are comparatively insignificant; tho in the legend which makes Seb and Nüt the parents of Osiris, Isis, Nephthys, and Set, we see an attempt to blend the two religious cults. Sun-worship existed in prehistoric times to the latest period of Egyptian history. The belief was that Ra in his boat sailed around the world, appearing in the east in the morning, and in the evening sailing behind the western hills into the under-world. He was symbolized at Heliopolis by the obelisk and the phœnix, but was always pictured as a man with a hawk's head—the latter a peculiarity of all solar deities. There were, of course, a great number of inferior sun-gods. The writer continues:

"Ra, besides being the sun-god, was regarded by the Egyptians as having been the first king of Egypt, but in times so remote that the phrase 'the like has not happened since the time of Ra' was used to denote anything not known in the memory of man. The kings of Egypt traced their descent to the divine Ra, and always designate themselves 'Son of the Sun.' The *people* held with such tenacity to the real existence of Ra as the first king that the priests were unable to eradicate the belief, tho in later times the favor given to Osiris, as the archetype of kings, caused the honor to be shared, for 'tho Osiris was supposed to have ruled as a man over men only, the dominion of Ra was relegated to a time when gods still sojourned among men and Ra bore rule over both.'"

The Osirian legend, denuded of detail, is as follows. Osiris and Set were brothers, born of the earth and sky (Seb and Nüt). Osiris was called "the good being," and Set symbolized evil. These two were enemies. Set finally succeeded by treachery in doing Osiris to death, and scattered the fragments of his body over the country. Isis, his sister, collected these fragments, and Osiris eventually became the god of the dead. The writer quotes a number of authorities in favor of the theory that "the original Osiris was the ideal man, or rather king, whose life was the pattern life, whose death showed how all men, even the best, must die, and whose life beyond death showed, too, how by the exercise of virtue all might attain to a like continuance of a personal identity." In *Biblia* (April, 1898) M. Amélineau describes his discovery of the tomb and mummy of "Osiris, the Good Being," at Abydos, one of the centers of the Osirian cult. M. Amélineau, in his article, speaks of Osiris as the benevolent god, benignant and charming, to whom is generally attributed the progress of civilization in the Nile valley, who taught his contemporaries how to cultivate the earth, to enjoy their rural pleasures, to charm their leisures, and forget their fatigues with the help of simple and touching songs."

The text-book of the Osirian faith is the "Book of the Dead," which treats of the life of man after death. Some papyri state that the sixty-fourth chapter was written as early as 4266, and the ideas in it were of course generally accepted much earlier than that. The writer in *The Westminster Review* goes on to say:

"Certain chapters were chosen at the discretion of the man on whose tomb or on whose mummy they were to be inscribed. Certain chapters, too, would be chosen for the papyrus roll which was to be laid beside his mummy, so that in the other world he might refresh his memory with the words of power to overthrow his foes, if he should be so unfortunate as to forget them, or if he had unwisely not duly prepared himself for the life to come by learning them in this world.

"He also prepared for his amusement in the other world by having models of his favorite games, drafts and a kind of chess being among the number; and stories, such as delighted him in this life, written on papyrus rolls, buried with him to beguile his leisure; models of furniture that he would be likely to require were also often placed with him, that he might be spared the trouble of making them; for the Egyptians seemed to think that whatever in material form was placed beside the mummy would go with the spiritualized mummy into the other world.

"But perhaps the most interesting of all were the little Ushabti figures, who were supposed to till the fields of Aalu for the deceased, so that each little figure is represented with his hoe on his shoulder and his seed-basket slung across his back.

"Probably in the earliest times, when a great or rich man died, his slaves were slain so that they might go with him and continue to work for him. As time went on more humane ideas prevailed, and the model of the servant was placed by the mummy instead. Later on it was evidently considered that in death all are equal, and that, tho a slave in this life, a man might be equal with the rich in the world to come, so that even a poor man had these little figures buried with him."

In this Osirian bible, we are told, there is the idea of a personal judgment for each in the Hall of Osiris. If acquitted, the soul again took up its abode in the glorified body, which was thenceforth called *an* Osiris.

The most important of the works relating to the passage of Ra (the sun) through the underworld are "The Book of Knowing Duât" and "The Book of the Gates":

"In both it is supposed that Hades is divided into twelve parts, separated from each other by twelve doors or gates, which correspond to the twelve hours during which the sun is supposed to be occupied in going through the underworld. Both texts state that a river flows through the country, on it Ra in his bark floats along, the demons to be combated being stationed on either bank, and becoming more terrible as the journey advances; and in the twelve divisions are fields, which are cultivated by the pious dead, who thus are able to supply themselves with food. In Duât they are also expected to assist Ra in fighting the demons who oppose him in his passage through the division in which their fields lie. . . . . .

"In both texts the dwellers in the underworld are represented as in darkness, except for the one hour during which the sun passes through their division. In Duât this darkness was 'only lightened by fire-spitting serpents, or by the sea of flame in which the enemies of Ra were consumed.' . . . . . .

"The doctrine of immortality for all men was plainly taught, but as plainly it was shown that only the friend of Ra could hope for fields in Duât."

In spite of the heterogeneous nature of their theology, the moral maxims of the Egyptians, we are told, were definite and lofty, their "thou shalt nots" being much the same as the prohibitions of the Decalog. In a papyrus of 3366 B.C. occurs the maxim, "The son who hearkens to the word of his father, he shall grow old thereby"—a promise strikingly suggestive of the Fifth Commandment. "The man who, having received much, giveth little, is as one who committeth an injury," and "Be watchful to keep silence" have a not altogether unfamiliar sound.

The main worship of the Egyptians during the Roman and Greek occupations was that of Isis and Horus, but the veneration which Isis received during the Roman period was accorded her chiefly as the mother of Horus. Professor Petrie, author of "Religion and Conscience in Ancient Egypt," considers this to have had a profound influence on the development of Christianity. He writes, "We may even say that but for her presence in Egypt we should never have seen a Madonna."

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FOREIGN TOPICS.

THE UNITED STATES AS A WORLD POWER.

WITH the signing of the Treaty of Peace in Paris the United States is generally thought to have entered upon a new career, and the expected change is not overwelcome to any nation except Great Britain. Everywhere else we are regarded as a disturbing element, a people who can be goaded into attacking others at the pleasure of a sensational press. Curiously enough, the British colonies do not share the enthusiasm of Great Britain with regard to the advantages likely to be reaped by the Anglo-Saxon race by a union of the United States and Great Britain. Most Canadian papers congratulate their readers because Great Britain is strong enough to defend them against us. It is, therefore, all the more remarkable that a writer so little given to sensationalism as Prof. Goldwin Smith warns his readers that they must expect a serious decline of British prestige as a result of our new policy. He writes in the Toronto *Weekly Sun* as follows:

"In the first place, a great power of 'expansion,' as it styles itself, of conquest as its acts prove it to be, will be launched upon the community of nations. In the second place, Great Britain will cease not only to be the great military and naval power, but practically to be a military and naval power at all in this hemisphere. It is impossible to suppose that, with all her European and Asiatic liabilities, she will be able to maintain here a force capable of coping with an army of 100,000 men and a navy on the same scale. Within a fortnight from the outbreak of war everything here would probably be in the enemy's hands. Whatever Great Britain holds on this continent will henceforth be held by the good will of the United States."

He believes, however, that Jack Canuck, if he is a "good little boy," will not be interfered with. He says:

"Canada will be safe so long as she chooses to remain on friendly terms with her neighbors. There is no disposition whatever on the part of the Americans to violate her independence. . . . We may have sometimes to pour a little water on the burning valor of our 'paper tigers'; otherwise, let the Americans spend as much on ships and soldiers as they may, Canada has no real cause for fear."

The Hongkong *China Mail* declares that Great Britain has all along exerted herself for the benefit of the United States, and that we must now reward her. The paper is specially displeased with the rumor that sooner or later the Philippines will be exploited specially for the benefit of the American manufacturer, and says:

"EXPANSION."

U. S.—Yes, George, these Imperial clothes come high, but we must have 'em!

—*The Globe, Toronto.*

"Considering the part Great Britain has played in opening up commercial fields for American trade all over the world and the facilities given to her merchants and manufacturers, but more especially when we take into consideration how the friendship of Great Britain has aided the United States in her fight with Spain, and what British statesmen appear to be willing to do in the future to strengthen the friendship between the two sections of the English-speaking race, these narrow-minded proposals for shutting British vessels out of the Philippine trade are incomprehensible. . . . International politics are conducted on the principle of compensation; and if Great Britain is to run the risk of a European war for the sake of the United States, the United States must be prepared to shape her colonial policy on a broader basis than that laid down by the San Francisco *Chronicle*."

But the majority of papers in Great Britain proper do not fear that the United States will do anything that may be considered injurious to their interests by Englishmen. *The Daily Chronicle*, London, says:

"President McKinley enounces uncompromisingly that American policy in the far East is for the 'open door.' We may be permitted to interject that day after day, while Lord Salisbury was allowing the door to be closed, we reminded him that American opinion would support him in precisely this manner if he could only summon up the courage to stand fast."

The Times and *The Standard* are equally hopeful, but *The Daily News* notices "an absence of allusions to free-trade." Very few English publications are as outspoken as *The Saturday Review*, which speaks of a "hot-house affection" between the United States and Great Britain, and says:

"Let us put aside hypocrisy and say outright that we expect mutual gain in material interests from this *rapprochement* of the two countries. . . . We shall expect the States to deal generously with Canada in the matter of tariffs; we shall expect to be remembered when she comes into her kingdom in the Philippines; above all, we shall expect her assistance on the day, quickly approaching, when the future of China shall come up for settlement. For the young imperialist has entered upon a path where she will require a stout friend, and lasting friendship between nations is to be secured, not by the frothy sentimentality of public platforms, but by reciprocal advantages in their solid material interests."

The *Handelsblad*, Amsterdam, hopes "that the Philippines will not become a Nessus shirt to the United States." The French papers declare that peace is less than ever likely to reign since the United States openly avows its intention to conquer what can be conquered, and Hector Depasse, in the *Revue Bleue*, wonders why the United States intends to be represented at the Czar's conference. But no serious disagreement between this country and France is expected.

The Germans, too, believe that the United States will now become an essentially disturbing element, and they say that we, under British tutelage, are too ready to pick a quarrel with them. No German paper suggests that the people of the United States will examine the justification of a quarrel. The *Kölnische Zeitung*, Cologne, declares that the German fleet must not be allowed to fall behind the American navy in tonnage, and says:

"The American press never tires of mentioning the alleged enmity of Germany, quoting such papers as the *Kölnische, National Zeitung, Post*, and *Hamburger Nachrichten*. We have often pointed out that the German press as well as the German Government sought to be as impartial as possible, but that does not mean abstention from criticism in an affair of international importance. . . . In this the press of all Europe is with us—the English excepted, as a matter of course. We have been informed *ad nauseam* that never a nation went into war from nobler or more unselfish motives. To-day the condition of Cuba is worse than at any time during the rebellion against Spain, the American volunteers give freedom and civilization to Puerto Rico after the manner of the brutal soldiery of the Thirty Years' War, the Philippines are simply taken from Spain altho nobody has been able to discover what those islands have to do with the

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liberation of Cuba, and altho the help of the Filipinos against Spain was obtained under false pretenses. Yet the American press expects, not impartiality, but loud praise of the terms of peace. . . . The treaty is actually called one of the most magnanimous in the history of the world. . . . It is to be wished that the Americans would make use of more critical, sober common sense, less driveling sentimentalism, and less fine rhetoric in their politics. Moreover, it would be good for them to learn a European language or two, in order to study the great papers of the world themselves rather than to trust to purposely mutilated cable excerpts."

The *Kreuz-Zeitung*, Berlin, thinks the United States will proceed in future "with her accustomed want of consideration for others as long as possible, *i.e.*, in plain German, as long as the others remain in the position of patient bystanders." The *National Zeitung*, Berlin, expresses itself to the following effect:

Lamentations are heard in England because the Americans have slammed the door in the face of Great Britain, so far as the trade with Puerto Rico is concerned. As if that were not quite natural! If the English make free-trade a condition of their friendship, then the Anglo-American alliance is in a bad way. America is, of course, well pleased to find that Great Britain defends the policy of the "open door," but if the United States ever gains a foothold in Asia, she will exclude English goods as well as those of other countries. No newspaper article, no after-dinner speeches can bridge the chasm between the most protectionist country in the world and the stanchest advocate of free-trade.—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

ENGLAND AND THE NICARAGUA CANAL.

PRESIDENT McKINLEY'S reference to the Nicaragua-canal project has been received with much interest in Great Britain. Starting with the assumption that England alone made our victory over Spain possible by restraining other powers, which, according to the English press, intended to attack the United States, despite their repeated declarations before and during the war that no such thing was contemplated, the English newspapers wonder how far Great Britain may go in her "graceful concessions" to American blood-relationship. Some believe that England can afford to give up her rights, as stipulated under the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, if the canal is internationalized.

The Spectator, London, says:

"Only in the case of war with the United States would American control be anything but a benefit. But even in that case we doubt whether American control would be worse than joint control. The command of the sea would have to be fought out, and the canal would fall to the victor as the prize. We fail, then, to see why we should make ourselves disagreeable to the Americans by vetoing the canal. . . . The Suez canal is not internationalized, but is under the control of the power that controls Egypt. It is this kind of control, we take it, that America intends to exercise. . . . We would rather abrogate the treaty out of good will and good feeling than for any direct *quid pro quo*. Let us show the world that, tho in the case of foreigners we shall be tenacious of our treaty rights to the last iota, we can in the case of our own kith and kin think of their interests and wishes as well as of our own. The only conditions which we would make should concern the canal itself. We would abrogate the treaty on the following terms: (1) That within the next ten years the United States should make, or obtain the making of, an interoceanic canal; (2) that she, and no other power, should exercise control over the waterway and banks of the canal; (3) that if the United States ever abandoned her power of control, it should be offered first to Great Britain; (4) that the canal should be open at all times to all nations at peace with the United States; (5) that the dues charged should be the same in the case of American and other vessels."

The Outlook thinks that even such concessions need not be made, as the United States will be forced to depend upon Britain's help in case of war. It adds:

"A moment's thought will show that the States can claim a paramount interest in the canal only on grounds identical with our own, and can acquire a special control only by sharing it with us. The Clayton-Bulwer treaty stands in need of revision, and we may rest assured that it will be amicably revised, because treaty obligations, sentiment, and self-interest all concur in dictating to the Washington Government exactly that kind of revision with which, on precisely the same grounds, England will have no difficulty in negotiating."

The Saturday Review is pleased to see that President McKinley appreciates the fact that Great Britain protected American interests during the late war, but it fears that the good will between the United States and the mother country may suffer when material interests are at stake. It says:

"But there was an indication in the message that this good will may, in the future, touch upon sudden limits. The reference, for instance, to the Nicaragua canal was somewhat imperious. We admit that the United States Government is justified in claiming full control over the canal while it is being constructed, but at the proper time we shall not fail to remind it that, under the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, our rights in the canal are quite equal to the American rights. If the Americans are willing to make the Nicaragua canal a free highway, like the Suez canal, we shall agree; if they are minded to make it a restricted possession of their own, we shall not agree."

The St. James's Gazette says:

"Some of our contemporaries appear to think that a definite reference to British treaty-rights should have been made. But that reference is, in our opinion, not so much omitted as implied. Indeed, the statement that 'our relations with Great Britain have continued on a most friendly footing' requires . . . some such interpretation between the lines of a phrase that must of necessity be couched in the accustomed vagueness of diplomacy. . . . A nation may outgrow the principles which guided its early years of conduct, but it can not repudiate the signed and sealed engagements of a compact so binding and so clear as the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. Mr. McKinley has obviously recognized this, and it will be strange if the opportunities just now afforded by the Canadian negotiations do not result in the near future in a comprehensive understanding between the two great branches of the English-speaking race, not merely on the broad general lines of common commercial interests, but also on such closely related details as the creation and the guaranty of an interoceanic waterway."

The Times is satisfied if the Nicaragua canal is as free as the Suez canal. *The Daily Mail* insists that there must be joint control with Great Britain. The Manchester *Guardian* says:

"It is nearly eighteen years since Mr. Blaine declared the Clayton-Bulwer treaty to have been abrogated by circumstances, and altho Lord Granville maintained that the British Government relied with confidence upon its observance, the United States again asserted that it was no longer binding. We need not, therefore, affect surprise when Mr. McKinley ignores its existence under circumstances that could not have been foreseen in 1881, much less in 1850. Nevertheless we regret that the guaranties of the canal's neutrality are so lightly brushed aside; and that, instead of joining with Great Britain in inviting 'every other state with which both or either have friendly intercourse to enter into stipulations with them similar to those which they have entered into with each other,' the United States should depart from its own resolution never to 'obtain or maintain for itself any exclusive control' over a Central American canal."

Our Canadian cousins are very much interested in the subject, but most of their papers think that the matter is hardly far enough advanced to merit much discussion, especially as American railroad interests, as well as the Panama Canal Company, will have a word to say. *The Monetary Times*, Toronto, believes that it is useless to stipulate about the position of the canal with regard to belligerents. It says:

"Such a canal ought, like that of the Suez, to be neutralized. France would particularly object to the Nicaragua canal coming under the control of the United States; the real control would go

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to the nation which might have the largest fleet to detail for its protection. This rather than a paper control which would in the event of war go for little would be the governing factor. The report that the Panama Canal Company has sent representatives to Washington to oppose the building of the Nicaragua canal has caused some severe criticism of the 'effrontery' of the move. Whether England would be disposed to join France in any protest against a violation of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, under present circumstances, must not be hastily assumed."

A GERMAN ADMIRAL'S ACCOUNT OF THE PHILIPPINES.

BETWEEN the extremely optimistic description of our new Asiatic possessions as furnished by "expansionist" papers and the very pessimistic view taken by some writers who consider the United States already big enough, it is extremely difficult for even the most intelligent reader to form a just conception of the Philippines. The following excerpts from Admiral Plüddemann's "Struggle for Cuba" will therefore be welcome. Plüddemann, like all German naval authors, does not write for the masses. His aim is to convey information, and he does so in the dry tone of the average German professor. He is a typical naval officer of the type to which Dewey belongs, and sensationalism is entirely "out of his line." He writes, in the main, as follows:

The area of the nearly 1,200 islands comprising the Philippines is very respectable, rather larger than that of Italy. There is a chance of a safe, quiet coasting trade, as there are countless channels, secure against storms. The climate is tropical. From November to February (the cool season), the climate suits Europeans remarkably well. The other months are less agreeable, but the people need not be unhealthy, if due precautions are taken from a sanitary point of view. The bubonic plague has never been in the Philippines, but typhoid and smallpox claim many victims. Manila is healthful, since a magnanimous Spaniard presented that city with an adequate supply of pure water.

The worst plagues of these islands are hurricanes, insects, and earthquakes. The soil, however, is incredibly rich, rice, sugar, tobacco, and above all Manila hemp being the chief exports. There is plenty of coal and of good quality, as the railroad from Manila to Dagupan, of which some 120 miles are in working order, shows.

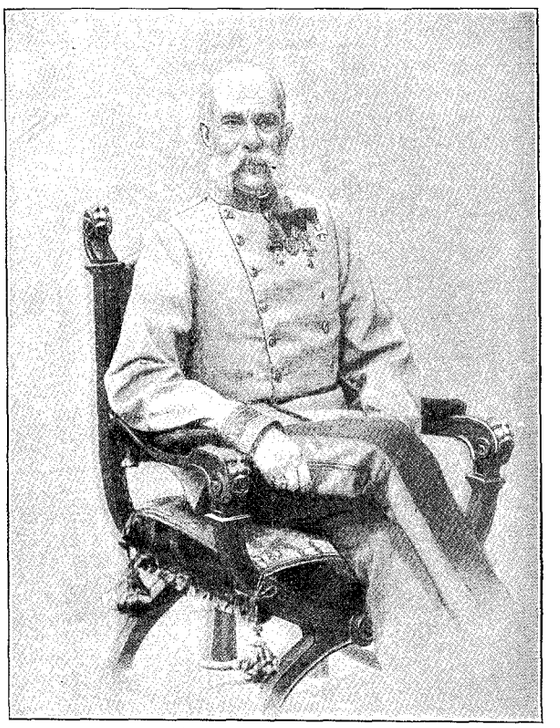
The inhabitants have hardly changed since the Spaniards annexed the group. They are divided into over fifty different nationalities, the Malays being most numerous. Of whites there are only 15,000, of Chinese and their relatives by intermarriage with the natives over 160,000. There are 1,500,000 Negritos in the interior who are entirely independent. Besides the national differences, religious differences prevail.

One of the chief objects of the Spanish kings who encouraged annexation and colonization was the salvation of souls. But this ideal purpose was badly accomplished by the missionaries sent out to do their work under the protection of Spanish bayonets. Outwardly they converted the natives, who nevertheless retained many of the heathen customs peculiar to their districts. In reality these missionaries, secure in the protection granted to them by the home Government, made slaves of the natives. In the south they never made any headway, for that has been converted to Mohammedanism. The north has now adopted a kind of bastard Catholicism, but there are many different sects, which unite only in one thing—their hate of the foreigner. There have been many rebellions, generally put down by the Spaniards with comparatively small loss; but the Spaniards never attempted to rule the interior. The last rising was put down by Polavieja, who, in order to get rid of the rebels, offered them money. Aguinaldo accepted $400,000, but he quarreled with his comrades about the division of the bribe. In the mean time the Americans furnished the rebels with arms and ammunition, promised them independence, and obtained their help against the Spaniards.—*Translation made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

IT is not anlikely that Portugal will follow the lead of her daughter-country Brazil and become a republic. Fat King Charles does not seem to care; indeed he is reported to have said that he is at heart a Republican. When asked why he did not abdicate, he answered: "I stay in the king-business because I have learned no other!"

FRANCIS JOSEPH OF AUSTRIA.

ON December 2, fifty years had elapsed since Francis Joseph I. became Emperor of Austria, his uncle Ferdinand having abdicated and his father being unwilling to accept the burden of a throne. He has not been lucky. The Hungarians revolted, proclaiming the republic, and it required the help of Russia—



FRANCIS JOSEPH I., EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA AND KING OF HUNGARY.

granted by Czar Nicholas I. without *quid pro quo*—to restore order. The Italians, who made war upon Austria at the same time, were beaten; but they renewed the struggle in 1859 with the help of France, and were successful. In 1866 Austria lost the hegemony over Germany for good. In the following year the Emperor pacified his unruly Hungarian subjects by declaring Hungary an independent kingdom, united with Austria only in the person of her ruler. Still the Magyars are not satisfied, especially as the Austrians expect them to pay a larger share of the army and navy expenses. Meanwhile each little state of Austria is anxious to obtain the same privileges as Hungary, and the influence of the Germans, who alone are interested in the preservation of the empire, is declining, and their affections have been alienated. As if these troubles were not enough, the Emperor has been singularly unfortunate in his family affairs. His only son committed suicide, his brother was executed in Mexico, his wife assassinated but recently in Geneva. It has been said that the Emperor, like his predecessor, wishes to abdicate; but his popularity is now greater than at any time during his long reign, and he remains at his post merely from a sense of duty. Unfortunate as he has been, all Europe unites in praising him.

The *Nieuws van den Dag*, Amsterdam, says:

"Altho honored and respected by his people to such an extent that his heterogeneous empire is probably held together by his personal influence only, Francis Joseph has probably experienced more reverses, as a ruler as well as in his family, than any other sovereign. He has promised many reforms, and wished to grant them, but his plans were often wrecked by the internal dissensions of his empire. The revolutionary movements, however, which broke forth in nearly all European states found Austria-Hungary prepared to resist."

On the whole the Austrian people have united in praising their sovereign. The *Wiener Zeitung*, Vienna, says:

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"The battle of political parties has ceased for a while, racial and national dissensions have vanished; as one man the people gather around their prince. May this augur well for the future! May the Emperor be permitted to see his peoples working in harmony, and may we see our beloved country stand forth proudly among the nations under the motto: *Viribus viritis!*"

The *Neue Freie Presse*, Vienna, points out that for their own sakes, if not from motives of loyalty, the Emperor's subjects must wish to see him reign many more years. It says:

"His life is important, not only to us, but to all Europe. Of all living sovereigns none could be spared less easily. He is the personal bond which holds these lands together; his prestige, his industry, his sense of duty, can not be replaced. . . . It has fallen to the lot of the Emperor to rule during a period of political and social changes, a period of fading traditions and new ideas, a period most trying to a ruler. The Emperor himself has known this for a long time, and he has expressed it in his speech from the throne, after the loss of Lombardy, when he said: 'The good fortune to live in a quiet, happy age has not fallen to our share.'"

The Hungarians have been more formal in their remarks. In the Hungarian Parliament Francis Kossuth said that "Hungary recognizes only her constitutional King, not the Austrian Emperor." Not a delegation was sent to Vienna, and the *Budapesti Hirlap*, Budapest, says:

"A thrill, but not of pleasure, must pass through the soul of Francis Joseph I. as he thinks of the changes which have taken place during the past fifty years. Like a young Cæsar he mounted his throne, proclaiming his will to be law. The Hungarian nation and the House of Hapsburg fought with each other fifty years ago, and the eighteen-year-old Emperor colored the rising sun of his reign blood-red. . . . He underrated the strength of the Magyars, who had to be crushed with the help of Russia. Happily his experiences, his own personal character, and the advice which came from the divine soul of a woman freed him from the bonds of his youth. . . . Fifty years after his ascent to the throne, the Emperor finds his empire divided in two parts; but the second of December concerns only the one."

The *Journal des Débats*, Paris, points out that this antagonism between Austria and Hungary is increasing rather than lessening, as the Hungarians are not very anxious to remain united with Austria. It then continues:

"At the same time the differences between Slavs and Germans become even more dangerous to the empire than the rivalry between Austrians and Hungarians. As if that were not enough, antisemitism is raising its grim head, increasing the general disorder. Nothing but the strange affection of the people for their Emperor now prevents a catastrophe. This is what renders Francis Joseph so necessary, and for this reason we do not believe that the Emperor will abdicate. Were he to consult his own convenience, he would, no doubt, abandon a throne which is threatened with greater difficulties than ever surrounded it before. But he has before this proven that he is ready to sacrifice himself for the interest of his people, and he will not leave them at a time when he is more than ever necessary to their well-being."

In England, too, there are many people who believe that the constitutional reforms obtained by Francis Joseph's people are not an unmixed blessing. *The St. James's Gazette*, London, says:

"Austria, as a rigid autocracy, was perhaps possible; as a loosely jointed political federation of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, is an undoubted failure. But to-day's jubilee is a personal one, and in all Europe there are few who will not wish well to the Emperor-King, the most blameless and self-sacrificing man who ever set himself to a hopeless task. Even those who twenty years ago joined with Mr. Gladstone in his unworthy and untruthful attacks on the Emperor's policy will to-day take part in the congratulations."

The Spectator says:

"This man, whose death would probably be the signal for universal war, who has at his disposal the third greatest army of Europe, who is never mentioned by friend or foe without profound respect, is so unhappy that with sixteen of his eighteen states giving themselves up to joy because of his jubilee, and the other two only abstaining because they date his reign differently, he can join in no celebration, show himself to no crowd, but lives in seclusion in his country palace thinking ever what further misfortune Providence has in store. . . . We should say of him now that he was most like an English squire of the harder type; proud of ancestry, aware, tho dimly, of duties, which according to his lights he strenuously performs, counting among his duties the preservation of his estates, and willing to make some sacrifices, but not too many, for the benefit of his tenants. Without originality, he is still a good manager, recognizing clearly where the essence of the matter lies; and tho devoid of special keenness of insight, he knows one man from another very well indeed. That is an ordinary type, and the Emperor Francis Joseph is an ordinary man with this difference, that his range of experience has been vast, that he has very few scruples when the interests of his sovereignty are concerned, and that his peculiar pride, a specialty of his house for generations, has the exact effect of other statesmen's tolerance. He is still 'the Roman Emperor,' who can use any one, accept an ally, pardon if convenient any foe, and still remain in his own thought the first among mankind."—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

THE NAVIES OF FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

THE possibility of a war between France and England has induced many Continental papers to publish estimates of the naval strength of these powers. These estimates differ very materially. Thus the *Illustrirte Zeitung*, Leipsic, gives England sixty-two serviceable battle-ships, but this same paper overrated very much the naval power of Spain. The *Hamburger Nachrichten*, on the other hand, contains an article in which the British fleet is criticized by a writer who is evidently acquainted with his subject. He, too, admits the superiority of the British navy over that of France, but he does not think England is quite equal to France and Russia combined. The construction of the British vessels he regards as anything but faultless. We condense his remarks as follows:

England is, no doubt, the strongest naval power, but only a war can show whether she has that superiority which is generally claimed for her. Her object has always been to marshal an imposing array of ships. But she is lacking even now 25,000 men to put her navy on a war footing. Even the ships now in commission have not their full complement of men. Moreover, many of her ships are too old to count. The available fleet comprises about two hundred and thirteen vessels. Among these are quite a number of old and slow ironclads, built between 1878 and 1886. Nor should it be forgotten that British war-ships rarely reach the speed claimed for them officially. They make two to three knots, some of them four to five knots less.* Of really serviceable, up-to-date line-of-battle-ships, Great Britain has only twenty-three: the *Canopus* (1897), *Cæsar*, *Hannibal*, *Illustrious*, *Magnificent*, *Majestic*, *Prince George*, *Victorious*, *Jupiter*, *Mars* (1895-96), *Barfleur*, *Centurion* (1894-95), *Royal Sovereign*, *Empress of India*, *Hood*, *Ramillies*, *Repulse*, *Resolution*, *Revenge*, *Royal Oak* (1892-93), *Nile*, *Trafalgar*, *Sans-Pareil* (1890-91). Great Britain, therefore, has hardly an adequate reserve of ships, either in the Channel or for use in the Mediterranean. It is very doubtful if her fleet is a match for the combined Russian and French fleets, especially as these countries do not need as many ships for the protection of their trade and colonies.

The French naval authorities have thrown cold water upon the enthusiasts who were ready to believe that French *élan* could make up for the deficiency in numbers. In the *Figaro*, Paris, a naval officer of high rank declares that France is not likely to rival Great Britain in battle-ships, and that she can not hope to make war successfully unless she can build a sufficient number of fast cruisers to destroy British trade. Admiral Fournier, of the French Mediterranean squadron, nevertheless thought he could give a good account of the enemy on his station. On the other hand, the *Petit Var*, Toulon, a Radical paper, declares that the French navy is anything but ready. It says:

"At the moment when the Fashoda question seemed likely to result in war, Toulon was without ammunition! Not only was there no reserve, but even the regulation ammunition was not on board the ships. What there was would not have been sufficient for a fight of ten minutes. . . . The same treachery which lowers the efficiency of the army also prevails in the navy. There are, for instance, three copies of the secret plans of the Toulon fortifications: one at Toulon, one in the army office, and one in the navy office. When the Fashoda trouble was at its height, two of these were lost, and they have not yet been recovered."—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

* Few people are aware of the extent to which this exaggeration is carried on. A case in point is seen in the recent trials between Thornycroft and Schichau boats. The Thornycroft boat, said to reach a speed of nearly 38 knots, is, despite expensive alterations, still unable to keep alongside the Schichau boat, for which only 27 knots speed is claimed. But the Schichau boats make their trial trips ready for action and in a choppy sea.—*Editor of* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

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MISCELLANEOUS.

LOUIS XVIII. AND HIS MINISTERS.

WHAT will probably prove to be an invaluable contribution to the history of the Restoration will be given the world by M. Ernest Daudet, who was selected by the second Duc Decazes, Minister of the Republic from 1873 to 1879, to prepare a biography of his predecessor, the illustrious favorite of Louis XVIII., from the numerous and precious documents preserved in the archives of the Château de la Grave.

The first instalment of this important work appeared recently in the *Revue des deux Mondes*. The scope of his article he thus defines:

"The episode to which these pages are dedicated begins at the close of 1818, when Richelieu, victim of his fears and scruples, was about to yield his power to Decazes. It terminates at the fatal moment when the Duke de Berry, in the flower of his days, and at the height of his political career, was assassinated by the poignard of Louvel. This catastrophe brought down a whole system of government. The opposite system, which prevailed during the next ten years, was not any more fortunate. It united liberal France against the Bourbons, determined their fate, and rendered it irreparable."

The documents confided to M. Daudet consist, in the first place, of the fragments of a memoir written by the first Duke Decazes after his fall from power, and his voluminous correspondence with almost all his eminent contemporaries, Richelieu, Pasquier, Molé, Maine de Biron, Villemain, Guizot, Pozzo de Borgo, Wellington, Castlereagh, and many others. The finest of the collection, however, is his correspondence with the king. There are over two thousand autographic letters from Louis to his minister, a veritable history of the reign written from day to day by one of the first actors. These unpublished documents derive a new interest from the fact that they present the great personages of that momentous epoch in a most favorable light, adding to their claim to the respect and consideration of posterity. M. Daudet speaks as follows of the letters of the king:

"We discern in these rapidly written epistles the character of the affection which he had dedicated to Decazes. He addresses him with as much abandon as familiarity, but above all with a paternal tenderness. He seizes every opportunity of taking his pen: his health, that of 'his son'—so it was that he called Decazes—the conversation that they had had the day before, for the king received him every evening; the most trivial incidents in their life in common, and the most grave events of the kingdom. He writes to him on every subject, at the slightest provocation, and sometimes three times on the same day. And in these letters, affectionate, heartfelt, witty, satirical, full of anecdotes, and interlarded with French and Latin quotations, some cry of solicitude is continually revealing a soul that we did not know to have been either so delicate, nor so communicative, nor so tender. 'My dear son, my dear child, my dear Elié,' such are the names that he gives him—'Thou knowest how I love thee—thou knowest what thou art for thy Louis'—such are the terms that he employs in writing to him."

France was divided at that time into the liberals, led by the king and his minister, who were endeavoring to render "France loyal and the throne national," and the ultra royalists, who, without daring to acknowledge it, were seeking to destroy the work of the Revolution and reestablish the ancient edifice which it had overthrown. The attitude of the king was always firm and full of dignity. He resisted the encroachments of the ultras, curtailed their privileges, and gave his unflinching support to the ministers whom he had invested with authority; never swerving even in the midst of violent political tempests, which it must have required great strength to oppose.

The leader of the ultras was Monsieur, Comte d'Artois, the brother of the king. Among his other offices Monsieur was colonel-general of the National Guard, and he used the immense influence conferred upon him by this important command to thwart the designs of the Government. The ministers complained of his animosity, and demanded that the National Guard should be placed under the control of the Minister of the Interior. The king honored their demand without hesitation. Monsieur stormed and raved, and threatened to appeal to the people. But the king was inflexible. The following letter from Louis to his brother is upon this subject:

"As I told you, my dear brother, the affair of the National Guard has been again discussed, and we have all agreed that the order was indispensable. In a constitution that imposes responsibility upon the ministry, it is essential that every institution, and above all one so important, should be under the direct and exclusive support of some one minister. Nevertheless, tho my reason is satisfied, my heart deplores the agitation that I read in yours. But I am compelled to silence it, and it is not the first time that I have found myself under this sad necessity. I know you too well not to believe that you will acknowledge the urgency of the motives that have determined my decision, and I trust that you will do nothing to add to the grief I feel in being compelled to oppose your wishes."

On another occasion, when Monsieur was found to be implicated in dangerous intrigues and agitations, he addressed to Louis a letter full of reproaches and complaints. The king in reply calmly justified his system, his principles, and acts, concluding in the following terms:

"I have no wish to change either my system or my ministers; on the contrary, I am resolved to sustain them in the most emphatic manner. You have announced that if you can not succeed in persuading me you will make public your way of thinking, and, what will be unhappily the melancholy consequences of this, you will cease to see me. There is no doubt that this resolution would block the march of the Government. But with firmness and prudence we would triumph over this obstacle, and I hope, while I am king, there will be no serious trouble. But I can not contemplate without trembling the moment when my eyes shall be closed. You would then find yourself between two parties, one of which would believe that it had already been oppressed by me, while the other would anticipate being downtrodden by you. The result would be a civil war and a future of disaster, violence, and calamity. There is still time to abjure a project whose execution would cause so many misfortunes. I do not ask you to approve at once the invariable resolution which I have declared to you; time will lead you to do so, and the close of my life, now enveloped in so dark a cloud, may yet see some beautiful days."

This truly royal letter was not without effect. Monsieur submitted, tho with a very bad grace, and this is a specimen of the battles that were continually being waged between the king and the leaders of the party of reaction. These men claimed to be his chief supporters, but demanded as the price of their allegiance that he should violate his pledges to the people and the constitution, and undertake the impossible task of rendering the monarchy as absolute as of old.

Next to the correspondence of Louis himself, M. Daudet regards the diaries of the Duchess Decazes as the most valuable among the numerous documents entrusted to his discretion. The duchess was a woman of keen, penetrating intellect, quick insight, and accurate observation. She belonged to the ancient and illustrious house de Saint-Aulaire, was married to Decazes at sixteen, and lived to a very advanced age. There are many men still living who knew her, and they are unanimous in praising her strong character and high intelligence. Her diaries were not intended for the world, and in them she expressed her opinions with such frankness and abandon that even now, after a lapse of eighty years, it would be impossible to publish them without revision. M. Daudet declares, however, that as a fruitful source of information they are simply priceless; he turns to them at every moment only to be amazed at their inexhaustible wealth.

The Duke de Richelieu, Minister of Foreign Affairs in the

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king's famous ministry, towers above most of his contemporaries in intellect and influence. Richelieu stood between the two parties that we have designated. There existed a warm friendship between himself and Decazes, and he supported loyally, well knowing that they were sustained by the king, most of the measures brought forward by his colleague. Altho aristocratic in his associations and tendencies, his own convictions were no doubt in favor of a liberal monarchy. But he believed that nothing could be done unless the adherence of the ultras could be secured, and occupied himself with fruitless efforts to bring about a reconciliation between Monsieur and the followers of Decazes.

It appears from these documents that he suffered greatly from self-distrust, and took an exceedingly pessimistic view of the destinies of France. He was haunted by the desire to withdraw from power, and it required all the influence that Decazes could exert to prevent him from resigning. On his departure for Aix-la-Chapelle, he writes to his friend as follows:

"Adieu! I am sad, and our future looks to me very black; my own presents itself under the most gloomy colors, for if things go badly now I shall not be able to retire, and to remain in office will be for me a thousand times worse than to die."

On his return, he gives vent to the following denunciation of the free press, which reads like some of the attacks on yellow journalism in our own day:

"I return to France with a heart sorely oppressed at the sight of all the evils that menace this unhappy country. The liberty of the press is the Pandora's box from whence issue all the calamities that menace the land. By means of it, ancient institutions will be destroyed and new ones prevented from taking root. Just this was predicted long ago by the Duke of Wellington. It is sad, nevertheless, that twenty-eight millions of men should be condemned to ceaseless disquietudes, and perhaps to frightful misfortunes, so that some few newspaper fiends may be at liberty to spit forth their venom at leisure and poison the public mind. It is enough to put one into a rage."

In the diary of the Duchess Decazes we find the following pen picture of this illustrious statesman:

"For the rest, the Duke de Richelieu is a finished type of the gentleman and the grand seigneur, polite without affectation, dignified without austerity; a noble soul, disinterested and sincere. He is married, tho no one ever sees his wife. She lives in the Château de Courteille, near Verneuil, in Normandy. It is said that when they were already betrothed, she had the small-pox, which left her disfigured and deformed. Every one supposed that her fiancé would find a pretext for breaking his contract with a person so cruelly afflicted. But he manifested no such desire. The marriage took place, and tho they are for the most part separated, they understand each other perfectly, and there exists between them a warm mutual affection. . . . In the absence of his wife, the duke depends greatly upon his two sisters; he maintains the most affectionate relations with them, and abandons himself without reserve to their influence, for it is his fault to have no confidence in himself."

With still greater interest will be read this noble woman's defense of her husband, when he was being assailed by numerous enemies. She sets forth his intentions and pleads for him as follows:

"M. Decazes began to play his part with not less ardor and good faith than hope of success. He gave his whole heart to the cause he served, without regard to difficulties, or the consequences that might result to himself. Sure of the loyalty of his aim, sure both of his royalism and his liberalism, he could not believe that the one would be doubted because he did not deny the other. He marched with the royalists so long as he deemed that they were acting for the good of the country. He abandoned them when he saw the danger into which they were leading the king. Thereupon they declared that he had betrayed the kingdom, because he refused to be associated with their passions. In the same way, after marching for some time with the liberals, he stopped when he perceived where they proposed to conduct him, and they accused him of reaction. M. Decazes had undertaken a work which could only be accomplished slowly, and they all demanded an immediate result. He was occupied with a finished mosaic, and they demanded that it should be done with the rapidity of a sketch."

Thus terminates what may be called the first act of the episode which M. Daudet treats. In the second the scene is completely changed. Richelieu is now bent upon governing France, and demands obstinately the retirement of Decazes; while the king is broken-hearted at his inability to defend his favorite from the successful minister, who, in acquiring a taste for power, has become haughty and imperious. The tragical scenes that result from this situation, and above all the eloquent and pathetic letters of the king, read like the pages of a highly seasoned romance, rather than those of veritable history.

CORRESPONDENTS' CORNER.

How Toads Pass the Winter.

Editor of THE LITERARY DIGEST:

In an article on page 664, issue of December 3, it is stated that toads pass the winter in holes in dry earth. However true that may be of toads where the article was written, it is not so of toads here. Toads are amphibious. They hibernate with frogs in the soft mud underneath water in ponds, ditches, canals, etc. In the spring they come forth and live for some time in the water, diving down into the mud to escape danger or when a sudden lowering of temperature causes the water to freeze. They lay their eggs in the water, and these are found in long strings coiled in gelatinous masses. The eggs are fertilized as they leave the female. The eggs are easily distinguished from frog eggs by the black center, and they produce the black tadpole in contradistinction to that of the frog, which is brownish-gray. After these black tadpoles become toads they leave the water after a rain when the earth is damp and the sun obscured, instinctively avoiding a hot sun and parched earth, which would be fatal to them. The presence of hundreds of these small toads after a heavy shower has given rise to the stories of showers of toads. T. J. HENRY.

APOLLO, PA.

The Neglected Seminoles of Florida.

Editor of THE LITERARY DIGEST:

It may not be known to many outside of this State, but there are residing in the southern portion of Florida between three and five hundred semi-civilized Indians. They live in what is known as the Everglades. Heretofore they have lived a quite peaceful, happy life, hunting and fishing, but their vocation must change, and for the worse, unless help comes from some source. Orange groves, vegetable gardens, and railroads are now on the lands once so full of wild game. We have broken almost every agreement and have now driven them to the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, and they can no longer live by hunting and fishing. But little if any effort has been made to civilize them. Up to this time they have been doing well and have not been in need of help, but from now on they should have some consideration. A few years ago when I was a boy, I learned to speak their language and learned a good deal of their unwritten history. I was intimately acquainted with the most popular ones of the Seminole tribe, and I learned from them that an agent or two had been sent among them, but they did not understand his language and they looked upon him with suspicion. They are anxious to be taught to read and write, and from my personal knowledge I will say that they are easy to teach and learn fast. They have some very bright and industrious boys and girls among them of more than ordinary intelligence. They are in need of teachers. If half a dozen could be taught they would soon educate the balance. They are honest, virtuous, and industrious. They are of a copper color, tall, erect, and generally weigh about one hundred and fifty to one hundred and seventy-five pounds. Some noble specimens of manhood are among them.

Their lands and homes have gone into the hands of corporations, land companies, and speculators; but a small part of land is left for them to hunt on, and they have realized their condition, and often say that their children will have to perish, as they know not how to live like the white man; and it seems to give them a great deal of trouble.

There are but few people who seem to take any interest in them, and their condition is surely unknown to the authorities at Washington, or some greater effort would be made in behalf of these poor suffering people who have been driven from their homes to the end of the continent. But few can speak their language; in fact, no one has ever been to them, and been able to inform them so as to make them understand their meaning. I have been among them from my boyhood, and I feel an interest in their welfare, but I have never drawn the picture of their condition. All who know them will bear me out in the assertion that they have been honest, and cared for themselves. Up to this time they have molested no one, and they need and deserve help from some source.

I trust their condition will be made known through THE LITERARY DIGEST, and that the next Congress will investigate what I have said, and give to them a part of what they are spending on other Indians who would or do not need it, nor will appreciate it as much as the Seminoles of Florida, who have been so long neglected, especially in the line of education.

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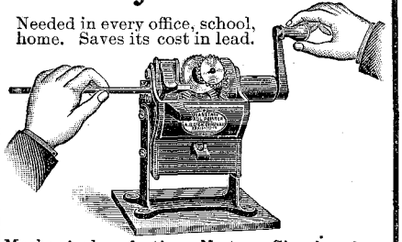

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FOREIGN POSSIBILITIES OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.

New patent laws have been inaugurated in Austria, providing for examination as to originality of invention. Under the new law, three years are granted in which the patent may be worked, unless the interest of the state demands its working before the expiration of this period. The old law required the fulfilment of only a few formalities.

An ornamental hardwood box, made of any one of the different kinds of wood, furnished with a solid stationary brass carrying handle, is used instead of the metal coal scuttle in England. Consul Halstead, of Birmingham, believes that our hardwood manufacturers, because of convenient supplies, could not only develop an export trade with these boxes, but could find a ready sale for them in the United States.

The total import into Germany of paints and colors for the year 1897 was 6,394,309 kilograms (1 kilogram = 2.2046 pounds), 440,000 kilograms of which were received from the United States. The statement is made that American colors are preferred; that they are from 15 to 20 per cent. cheaper than the German ones, altho poorer in quality.

Nearly all of the zinc white comes from Belgium, and is extensively used in interior decorative work, this style being preferred for ceilings. There are at least fifteen dealers in paints and colors in the city of Mannheim, and one firm—Messrs. G. P. Dall & Co.—is willing to receive consignments from America on trial (in competition with native products) and to sell on commission, if they are found equal in price and quality to the German product.

In his annual report Consul-General Osborn gives the following statement of imports and exports at Apia in 1897:

The total value of the imports was $329,630, of which nearly half ($157,695) came from Australian colonies. The United States sent goods to the value of $53,415; Great Britain, $13,322; Germany, $5,562; Fiji, $3,757; Tonga, $12,642; other South Sea islands, $4,518; New Britain, $580; and Hawaii, $884. The exports amounted to $239,198, of which $125,380 went to Europe, $54,305 to the United States, $51,473 to Australasia, $14,223 to Hawaii, etc. Of copra (native product), 10,691,520 pounds were exported from Samoa. The consul-general adds that a large percentage of the goods from Australia are of American origin. It is stated that all goods originating east of California are sent to the Atlantic seaboard, thence to Sydney, and from Sydney to Apia, and are delivered there cheaper than they can be obtained directly from San Francisco.

Consul-General Mason, writing from Frankfort, Germany, on the rigorous inspection of American dried fruits by the German authorities, says that the regulations have been "sharpened so as to include all kinds of fruits, dried and fresh. It is conceded that the scale is deposited only on the outside of the fruit, so that pared fruit must be free from all danger. But the German officials will take nothing for granted, and, before admitting even dried fruit, they require the opening of 10 per cent. of all the boxes to show that they contain peeled fruit. These requirements are so severe on the trade that the big steamship lines landing at Antwerp and Rotterdam have refused to carry American dried fruits. This in turn has raised the cost of freight on American fruit. It is obliged to take roundabout routes, reaching the interior by rail, with inspections at the frontier stations of Venlo and Herbesthal. The extra freight and the heavy cost of an inspection, the latter being about 5 cents per package, make a serious restriction on the American trade."

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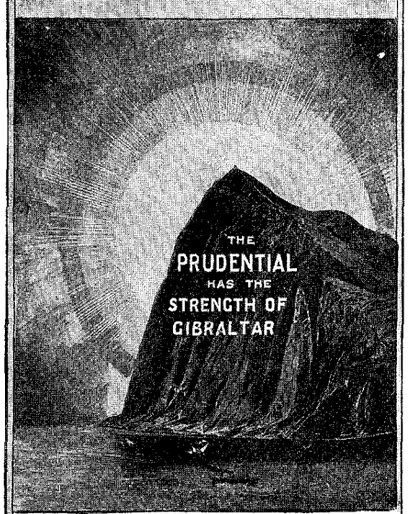

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PERSONALS.

SIR CASIMIR STANISLAUS GZOWSKI, K.C.M.G., who died at his home, in Toronto, a few days ago, was one of the great men of Canada. He was born in St. Petersburg, March 5, 1813. His father, Count Gzowski, a Polish nobleman, was an officer in the Imperial Guard. When the disastrous rebellion against the tyranny of Constantine broke out young Gzowski, with the patriotism of his race, threw in his lot with the insurgents. He was present at the Polish triumph at Warsaw, and took part in the engagements which followed. He was several times wounded, and when the final catastrophe came the division to which he was attached surrendered, the officers were imprisoned for several months, and were afterward exiled to the United States. After four years in this country, he moved to Toronto, where he lived up to the time of his death. Sir Casimir was the first president of the Society of Canadian Civil Engineers, and was also the first chairman of the Niagara Falls Park Commission. A fine bronze bust of him has been placed in Queen Victoria Park, near Table Rock, by the Park Commissioner. He also won considerable reputation in building the international bridge over the Niagara River.

THE London *Daily News* has discovered a curious affinity between trade and letters. Charles Lamb and Mills used to adorn the old India House. Austin Dobson, Gosse, and Cosmo Monkhouse are in the Board of Trade. Benjamin Kidd and W. M. Rossetti used to be at Somerset House. D. G. Rossetti narrowly escaped, at one crisis in his career, being a telegraph clerk instead of an artist. The post-office absorbed for many years the superfluous energies of Anthony Trollope.

Current Events.

Monday, December 26.

—The authorities at Washington are notified that measures have been taken to safeguard **American interests in the island of Iloilo.**

—It is reported that General **Weyler's entrance into the ministry** is opposed by Marshal Blanco and others.

—The conference on the peace **proposal** of the Czar has been set for St. Petersburg, about May 1 next.

—It is said that the French police have seized several bundles whose contents prove the existence of a **military plot.**

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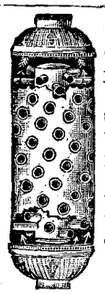

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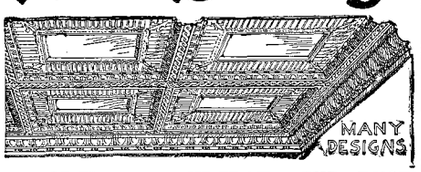

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—President **Aguinaldo's cabinet** meets and resigns.

Tuesday, December 27.

—The Cabinet considers the more important parts of the **peace treaty.**

—The supreme court in Hawaii holds by its decision that annexation **repeals the Hawaiian statutes.**

—It is reported that General Rios has **surrendered Iloilo.**

—General Henry issues an order revoking **Spanish franchises in Puerto Rico.**

Wednesday, December 28.

—**Senator Justin S. Morrill,** of Vermont, dies in Washington city.

—General Otis reports to the War Department that **Iloilo has been taken** by the Philippine insurgents.

—General **Henry withdraws his order,** revoking Spanish concessions in the island of Porto Rico.

—The Swiss village of Airolo is partially **buried by an avalanche.**

—It is reported that President McKinley is **opposed to an extra session** of Congress.

Thursday, December 29.

—President McKinley issues an order regulating the **financial system of Cuba** and fixing the standard of values.

—The preliminary report of the **Nicaragua Canal** Commission is made public.

—An official canvass of the **vote for governor of New York** shows a total of 1,319,190, of which Colonel Roosevelt received 661,707, a plurality of 17,783.

—**Aguinaldo has chosen a new cabinet,** which is pledged to independence and the retention of the Spanish prisoners.

—**Demonstration by Cuban soldiers** will not be permitted in Havana during the evacuation by the Spanish forces.

—There is much comment in Berlin at the reported arrival of an **American war-ship at Apia,** Samoa.

—It is asserted in Rome that **a pontifical document** concerning religious matters in America, has been despatched to Cardinal Gibbons.

Friday, December 30.

—Señor Romero, **Mexican Ambassador to the United States, dies** in Washington.

—The War Department orders an **investigation into the quality of the beef** furnished to the army.

—The Cuban patriotic committee in Havana decides to postpone their **celebration of Spanish evacuation.**

—**Mrs. Botkin is convicted** in San Francisco for the murder in the first degree of Mrs. Dunning.

—A **British cruiser is sent to Iloilo** to protect British interests.

—It is reported that arrangements are being made **to consolidate all the paper manufacturing interests** of the country.

—The Brazilian Parliament ratifies the treaty for **extradition with the United States.**

Saturday, December 31.

—Theodore **Roosevelt takes the oath of office** as governor of New York.

—Secretary Hay disapproves the exclusive concession granted by the former government of Hawaii to the **Pacific Cable Company.**

—Funeral services over the remains of **Senator Morrill** are held in Washington.

—A **great battle is reported** to have been fought in Sze-Chuen province, China, in which the imperial forces defeated the rebels.

Sunday, January 1.

—The funeral of Mexican **Ambassador Romero** is held in Washington.

—**Spanish sovereignty in Cuba ceases** at twelve o'clock; the United States flag is hoisted on the palace and forts.

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CHESS.

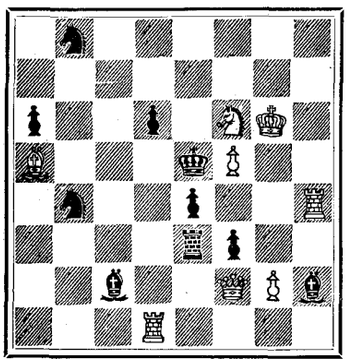
[...ions for this Department should ...ed: "Chess Editor, LITERARY DIGEST."]

Problem 345.

BY R. G. THOMPSON.

Honorable Mention *Brighton Society* Tourney.

Black—Ten Pieces.



White—Eight Pieces.

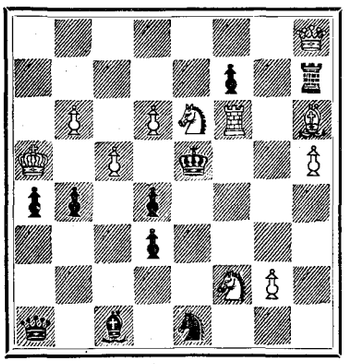
White mates in two moves.

Problem 346.

BY K. ERLIN AND O. NEMO.

First Prize *Hannover'schen Courier's* Tourney.

Black—Ten Pieces.



White—Eleven Pieces.

White mates in three moves.

Solution of Problems.

No. 339.

Key-move, R—R 6.

Solution received from M. W. H., University of Virginia; the Rev. I. W. Bieber, Bethlehem, Pa.; F. S. Ferguson, Birmingham, Ala.; Dr. H. W. Fannin, Hackett, Ark.; C. R. Oldham, Moundsville, W. Va.; F. H. Johnston, Elizabeth City, N. C.; C. Porter, Lamberton, Minn.; Dr. W. S. Frick, Philadelphia; the Rev. E. C. Haskell, Battle Creek, Iowa; F. B. Osgood, North Conway, N. H.; W. Montgomery, Petrolia, Can.; J. A. Coultans, Brooklyn; J. R. Hile, West Superior, Wis.

Comments: "Very fine"—M. W. H.; "Deserves praise and prize"—I. W. B.; "Fine problem"—F S. F.; "Coy and crafty"—H. W. F.; "First-class—displaying ingenuity and beauty"—F. H. J.; "A neat problem"—C. P.

Many of our solvers were caught in the trap set with K—R 2. The reply to K—R 2 is Kt—K 3, for Kt—Q 7 is not mate, as K x P.

No. 340.

1. R—K B 3 / K x P	2. R—B 4 ch / P x R (must)	3. Q—K 4, mate
1. ..... / B x R	2. Q—Q R sq, ch / K—K 5	3. Q—K 5, mate
	2. ..... / K x P	3. Kt—K 3, mate
1. ..... / B x P	2. P—B 3, ch / K—K 5	3. Kt—B 6, mate
	2. ..... / K x Kt	3. R—B 6, mate
1. ..... / B—B 8	2. Q—R 4, ch / P x Q (must)	3. R—B 4, mate
1. ..... / P—Q 8 (Q)	2. Q—R 4, ch / P x Q, (must)	3. R—B 4, mate
1. ..... / Kt x P	2. R—Q 3, ch / B x R (must)	3. P—B 3!!! mate

Solution received from M. W. H., I. W. B. Prof. C. D. Schmitt, University of Tennessee; J. Dejung, Jr., Rhinelander, Wis.

Comments: "A genuine Fridlizius: what more can be said?"—M. W. H.; "A fine conception by a fine problematist"—I. W. B.

Here is exemplification of the fact that a majority may be wrong, inasmuch as the majority worked this problem with Q—R 3 as the key-move. The only reply is P—Q 8 (Kt), and with a Black Kt on Q 8 there is only one variation in which White can not force a mate:

1. Q—R 3 / P—Q 8 (Kt)	2. R—Q 3, ch / K x P	3. Kt—K 3, mate

Oh, no! Kt x Kt.

C. Potter, F. H. Johnston, and J. Dejung, Jr., were successful with 338. The following names are added to those who got 337: F. H. Johnston, J. Dejung, Jr., the Rev. E. C. Haskell, W. Montgomery, J. R. Hile, and Prof. W. R. Pratt, Albany, Mo.

C. Porter got 336. J. D., W. M., and W H. Dickerson, Reese Mill, Ind., solved 335.

Fault-Finders.

We have lately received a number of letters criticizing our problems as unsound. The fact is, we haven't published an unsound problem since 312, and then the P was found and the problem made as sound as a nut. These criticisms evidently come from tyros in Chess, as they send the most absurd moves. For instance: Pulitzer's beauty, 337, is condemned because they imagine it is mate in one move: Kt x P. We can not take our space to reply to the very many ridiculous "cooks" of this order. We are always willing to assist inexperienced players or solvers, and have written many letters pointing out mistakes; but most of the criticisms we have received of 337, 338, and 340 are condemnatory, and do not show a desire for information. When we publish an unsound problem, we will make it known as soon as possible.

Famous Men Who Played Chess.

Walter Pulitzer concludes his very interesting paper on "Some Famous Men Who Played Chess" in *The American Chess Magazine* (December), from which we take the following:

"To Henry Thomas Buckle, the brilliant author of the 'History of Civilization,' belongs the distinction of being one of the finest Chess-players of his time. Had he not already been noted as a historian, his name would still be enrolled high on the scroll of Caïssa's favored chessists. Though never a professional himself, Buckle defeated many of the most eminent professionals of his day. Indeed, England has so far produced no truer Chess-genius unless it be Staunton. . . .

"The late Lord Granville, Secretary of Foreign Affairs (1870–74), was very partial to the game. He figured prominently, it will be remembered, in the Alabama Claims proceedings, and there is an interesting drawing in one of the back numbers of *The British Chess Magazine*, which represents him playing a game with W. E. Forster, afterward "Buckshot Forster," while Mr. Gladstone stands close by, an interested spectator. Thus are they whiling away the time, "waiting for the verdict," which means the decision of the American agent at Geneva, respecting the "indirect claims."

"As to the Grand Old Man himself, his predilection for the game was well known. Next to his favorite pastime, that of felling trees, came Chess, which, despite his fondness, he never, with his wonted care, allowed to develop into anything resembling a passion.

"The late Lord Churchill was, to use his own expression, 'an ardent player.' . . . .

"It might not be quite accurate to style Herbert Spencer a devotee—yet, like so many other writers, he found it, in its more suggestive bearings (its relation to science and thought and supposed similarity to certain phases of life), of great value to him in his literary work. His latest book contains a long and elaborate reference to one game—as beautiful as it is sound.

"As against this, John Ruskin, imaginative writer as he is, seems to have overlooked the metaphorical possibilities of Chess, for he seldom mentions the game in his writings; yet perhaps he can compensate for this neglect—by having played it 'over the board' in the privacy of his own family for many years."

Of famous Frenchmen who were lovers of the game, Mr. Pulitzer mentions Montaigne, Voltaire, Lagalle, Diderot, and Victor Hugo.

Of famous Germans special mention is made of Frederick the Great, Von Moltke, Emperor William I., and Bismarck.

Of famous Americans, the list begins with Benjamin Franklin, who "was not only a scientific player, but a writer on Chess to boot. His 'Morals of Chess' was the first book on the subject *printed in this country*." *Others noted are* Aaron Burr, John C. Fremont, Abraham Lincoln, who was "really a skilful devotee," and Oliver Wendell Holmes. Of the last, Mr. Pulitzer says that he "may or may not be entitled to the term Chess-player, though his knowledge of the game was fine and deep, if we are to judge from the extensive references which he made to it throughout his writings, whose chessic similes and metaphors stand unmatched in the English language." As an example the following quotation is given from "The Poet at the Breakfast Table": "Men's mind's are like the pieces on a Chess-board in their way of moving. One mind creeps from the square it is in, to the next, straight forward like the Pawn. Another sticks to his own line of thought, and follows it as far as it goes, with no heed of other's opinions, as the Bishop sweeps the board in the line of his own color. And another class of minds break through everything that lies before them, ride over argument and opposition, and go to the end of the board like the Castle. But there is still another sort of intellect which is apt to jump over the thought that stands next in the unexpected way of the Knight. But that same Knight, as the Chess-manuals will show you, will continue to get on to every square of the board in a pretty series of moves, that look like a pattern of embroidery, and so these zigzagging minds will sooner or later get back to the square next the one they started from."

Inter-Collegiate Chess.

HARVARD WINS THE MATCH.

The Chess-representatives of Columbia, Harvard, Princeton, and Yale began the seventh annual tournament on December 26. The contestants were J. G. Falk and A. S. Meyer, Columbia; E. E. Southard and W. C. Ahrensberg, Harvard; J. Ely and A. S. Weston, Princeton; L. A. Cook and S. Webb, Yale. Only three have played in preceding tournaments: Meyer and Cook (1897); Southard (1895, '96, '97). In the last two Southard made clean scores.

The full score of the match is as follows:

	Won.	*Lost.*		*Won.*	*Lost.*
Harvard	10	2	Princeton	3	9
Columbia	8½	3½	Yale	2½	9½

INDIVIDUAL SCORES.

	Won.	*Lost.*		*Won.*	*Lost.*
Southard	6	0	Ely	1	5
Ahrensberg	4	2	Weston	2	4
Falk	4½	1½	Cook	1	5
Meyer	4	2	Webb	1½	4½

THE RECORD OF THE MATCHES.

	Harvard.	*Columbia.*	*Yale.*	*Princeton.*
1892	7½	9	5	2½
1893	7	8½	5	3½
1894	9	3	6	6
1895	8½	8	3½	4
1896	10	4½	3½	4
1897	10	6½	4½	3
1898	10	8½	2½	3
Total	62	48	30	26

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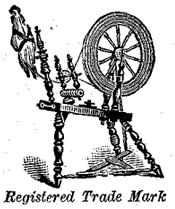

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